

THE JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL METHOD

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EDITORIALLY SPEAKING

WHAT THEN IS EDUCATIONAL METHOD?

At the beginning of a new volume of this journal it is proper to state that the larger concept of method that inspired it originally will continue to be its basic idea. The term method has been too long employed in educational thinking and writing with reference almost exclusively to the procedure of the classroom teacher in conducting "recitations." It should be recognized, first, that teachers have other problems of method than those involved in handling a class lesson and, second, that administrators and supervisors too have problems of method, demanding sound principles and appropriate technique. Inasmuch as all three of these classes of workers are concerned with leading and coördinating the efforts of other persons, singly and in groups, the principles that are right for one are likely to be right for the others.

The principles available tend on the whole either to the autocratic or the democratic in management. Since America is committed to the democratic rather than the autocratic in social life, the schools should make persistent effort to realize in every aspect of their life the ideal of co-

operation. This appears to be self-evident, but it is not universally recognized, and certainly the implications of the doctrine have not been fully realized.

THE JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL METHOD, while it is not the organ of any special group or cult, has especially welcomed contributions from all sources that seemed likely to aid in the development of democracy in education. It will continue to do so. Records of actual experience, scientific studies, and occasional exposition of principles are solicited. Material likely to be of common interest to principals, supervisors, and teachers—to provide a meeting ground—will be particularly in point.

ITS DAY IN COURT

Unless all signs fail, the decade just ahead will witness a remarkable revival of interest in the elementary school. For some years the secondary schools, first the regular high school and afterward the intermediate school or junior high school, have held the center of the stage. But the newer experimental schools are largely elementary schools. The so-called Platoon School is rapidly multiplying and is occasioning widespread discussion. Nationwide curriculum revision has had to do

primarily with the grades. The movement for a single salary schedule has reference primarily to the improvement of the work of the earlier years.

The older elementary school obviously will not satisfy the needs of the new day. The little sister shows signs of refusing longer to wear the cast-off garments of her

elders and is beginning to demand a cloak made especially for her. No one can now foresee what the resultant of the various forces will be, but two things are apparent: that we are in the midst of change and that we shall need the combined wisdom of all concerned to distinguish between change that is for good and change that is not.

THE NATURE OF AIM AND ITS BEARING UPON SUPERVISION

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Frequently in a city whose growing period has extended through several generations, one may readily read the changes in standards of architecture prevailing at different times. Any movement having age or history likewise bears the marks of influences to which it has been submitted. Our language reflects the influence of Aristotle when we speak of a warm-hearted person. School standards and practice today bear the marks of the social and psychological epochs through which education has come. The demand for unquestioned obedience which now and again makes its appearance even in this democratic period reflects the age of autocracy. The concept of education, as a process of re-making, civilizing or, preferably, socializing the child, expresses, in part, the influence of the theory of innate human depravity of the earlier Christian era. The influence of Herbartian psychology can readily be seen wherever one examines educational practice.

An examination of current tendencies in supervision reveals the same story. Supervision as a distinct function is relatively a newcomer. It was an offshoot of administration. As a consequence, in the

early days—and even yet in places—we find the inspectorial function stressed. The supervisor visits schools primarily for administrative purposes, to see whether the teacher has good discipline, is up to date on the courses of study, is observing approved methods of teaching, is keeping satisfactory records, gives evidence of managerial ability and standards of house-keeping, whether she should be advanced in salary or dismissed, etc. Administration of the past, and not infrequently at present, is given to autocratic methods. This, too, has left its mark upon its offspring, supervision. Democracy in supervision is a task yet to be achieved. The reaction of teachers to supervision demonstrates the reality of this problem. The administrator, furthermore, has for very real reasons been responsible for and concerned in developing an organization that “works.” Because of his greater dependence upon the approval of the layman, the element of public expediency has demanded consideration. Likewise the supervisor oftentimes concerns himself more with that which is immediately effective and smooth-running rather than with that which is most sound in principle, yet

he has not the excuse of the administrator.

Supervision has developed in response to demands of the practical situation. The teaching situation was crying for attention. Specific problems of the classroom needed solution. It easily followed that the supervisor should be mainly concerned in ways and means of rendering specific help in the school as it was, and with consequent small attention to the basic educational assumptions and to questions of educational values and principles.

Supervisory standards and practices, growing up with the school as it is, inherited all the confusion of the school as it is. For instance, the teacher's rating scale was and is largely an autocratic instrument. Moreover, in the fact that it rates the teacher, it expresses the Herbartian conception of the nature of educative process, *i.e.*, that the teacher activity rather than the child activity is considered the most significant measure of education. If one examines practically any list of "standards of supervision," the confusion of educational and social principles is only too evident. So-called principles of supervision like principles of teaching too frequently represent a mere inconsistent collection.

Appreciation of this confusion in supervisory standards and practice led to a desire on the part of a seminar group to approach the problem of supervision from the standpoint of principles of education. The members were keenly anxious to put their leadership upon a sound basis, to express in their practice a sound and consistent educational theory. In attempting this task we decided to accept Dewey's educational theory as our basis and to develop its implications for supervision. We considered the following questions:

- a. What are the implications of Dewey's idea

¹ Dewey, *Democracy and Education*, p. 120.

of the nature of mind for supervisory practice?

- b. What bearing has his idea of a democratic progressive society?
- c. Of a unique individual?
- d. The nature of subject matter and method.
- e. The conception of education as growth.
- f. The nature of aim.

Of course we found much overlapping in developing the implications of these topics, but this in itself was instructive. They are not mutually exclusive. After examining supervision in this piecemeal way we raised such questions as the following from the point of view of a supervisor and attempted to develop standards for each problem in keeping with Dewey's theory.

- a. What should be the nature of teacher-supervisor relationship?
- b. What should be the standards of classroom discipline?
- c. What standards should be used for judging teaching?
- d. What standards for evaluating supervision?

The following paragraphs present the implications of Dewey's conception of "Aim" so far as we were able to interpret and apply it.

Perhaps the most significant statement on the point is the following: "The net conclusion is that acting with an aim is all one with acting intelligently."¹ Intelligence is one's ability in the face of a novel situation to size up the situation, to take account of all the forces at work, including one's own abilities, interests, and purposes both present and future, and to work out the most effective plan for utilizing and directing them so as to secure the maximum good. A simple illustration will serve to clarify the statement. A farmer who is wise does not set up purposes and plans apart from the facts. He must take into account the nature of the soil, its fer-

tility and drainage, the amount and distribution of rainfall, the prevalence of weeds and insect pests, conditions of temperature, the nature of the seasons, market demands and shipping facilities, his own ability, power, and resources. The extent to which all are considered and duly weighted will measure his success and his intelligence. Nor will a plan once made suffice. Some of these forces are subject to change. A late spring, heavy rains, an unusual and unforeseen dry season may make new plans essential to success. A change in market conditions demands adaptations. The mind must be able to play freely upon these facts or the chances of adjustment and success are reduced.

The teacher is in a similar situation. For her certain educational values are suggested. If they are arbitrarily and permanently fixed, the possibility of finer adjustment is just that much reduced. In her case the social heritage is given. She has her group of children. They represent a novel element to be discovered, also an uncertain and varying one. Each child is unique, bringing to the situation not only a force to be known and considered but a unique quality to be jealously guarded and carefully nurtured. Moreover, not only is each different from others but each individual himself varies with time, with place, and with increasing experience.

As an additional part of the problem there enter, more or less, a variety of other environmental factors: home life, community standards with reference to health, social attitudes and morals, the cultural level in music, art and reading resources. All these are factors to be considered by a teacher if she is to meet and handle her situation intelligently.

Moreover, in this situation, there is the teacher. She has her interests, her abilities, and her limitations. They, too, must be wisely considered by her or the most

effective combination of forces to the end of child growth cannot be secured. All of these and many others are elements in a developing situation to be organized and directed to most fruitful coöperation. It may seem trivial to note and consider them all, but in the realm of agriculture, where results of mistakes are more quickly and vividly realized, the need for so doing is readily apparent. In the human situation, the school, where values are more important, mistakes more costly and the problem more delicate, no influencing factor can safely be ignored.

If to act with an aim means to act intelligently in such a situation, aim must have certain other qualities. In the first place, it must arise out of the situation. "It must be based upon a consideration of what is already going on; upon the resources and difficulties of the situations." Aims are not to be dictated in accordance with some external or predetermined standard. If they are thus arbitrarily determined they would fit the situation only by accident. Thus determined, they would not be an expression of insight and foresight on the part of the one who was to guide the activity. Intelligent coördination and direction of the forces at hand by the individual in charge would be impossible because of the lack of relationship between forces at work and purposes to be achieved.

The aim must not only arise out of the situation, it must be flexible. It must be tentatively formed and subject to revision. The elements or forces a teacher is called upon to direct are numerous and infinitely variable. A set purpose necessitates coercion of such elements as do not normally fit in. Any later variation that might interfere with the determined goal would be looked upon as an evil. Without flexibility there can be no aim in this sense. Adaptation of aim to changing con-

ditions is evidence of intelligence continually at work.

On the other hand, to have an aim means to have a program or plan. The plan represents the results of mind already at work, an expression of foresight and organization. But the plan, as the aim, must be subject to change. Unless this is done, systematic procedure may be the very antithesis of acting with an aim. "To talk about an educational aim when each act of the pupil is dictated by the teacher (or by some precise prescribed plan) . . . is to talk nonsense."

So much of a presentation of the principles relating to the nature of aim seems necessary to lay a foundation for the following conclusions for supervisory practice.

In the first place, the nature of aim implies that supervision is subordinate to teaching, that it exists in a service relationship. In the school activities are already under way. The most effective and profitable development of these is the goal. The supervisor's task is to free them to fuller and more complete and more profitable expression. The supervisor must analyze the situation, discover the forces at work, the interests and activities under way, consider them in relation to educational values, and aid in realizing a finer coöperation of forces. It does not mean the supervisor must accept conditions but that she shall start from and work with conditions as they are, to reorganize them, to effect desirable changes in them, rather than to impose upon this situation some supposedly superior plan or criteria.

Such a situation is quite at variance with the early inspectorial type of supervision. The reaction of teachers to supervision and supervisors suggests that the attitude of superior judgment has not been replaced in any large measure by the spirit of serv-

ice. While the "helping teacher" idea is not new, it has not gone very deep. Much good would accrue to the supervisor-teacher relationship if this first implication of the nature of aim could permeate all supervisory activities.

In the second place, the nature of aim has certain implications for programs and plans in supervision. Being intelligent or having an aim means that one has considered the forces at work in relation to the values desired and has made a plan of work. One finds support here for the growing tendency to seek to improve instruction by a program of constructive work, such as: curriculum improvement in any grade or subject, a discovery and organization of educative pupil activities, a plan for the improvement of teaching reading, etc. One sees from this point of view also the weakness of chance classroom visitation, passing advice or criticism of details, today this, tomorrow that, and again something else—mere patchwork supervision.

It means the very opposite of a program made out by the supervisor without reference to the situation. "An educational aim must be founded upon the intrinsic activities and needs (including original instinct and acquired habits) of the given individual to be educated."² Whether we think of supervision as a means of promoting the growth of the teacher as learner or as a means of aiding the teacher to better promote child education, we are forced to conclude that supervisory plans must grow out of the classroom situation.

They must not only grow out of a study of the classroom situation, they must be the result of supervisor-teacher coöperation. This is not a mere concession of the supervisor to the "unreasonable independence" of teachers. It is not merely a means of enlisting the interest, securing the

² Dewey, *Democracy and Education*, p. 126.

coöperation and educating them to the newer points of view the supervisor may have in mind. Neither may it be a mere perfunctory coöperation if the best plan is to be secured. While the supervisor may have educational values more clearly in mind and know the shortcomings of the school better than the teaching force knows them, yet the teachers have a more intimate knowledge of their own interests and abilities and a more accurate knowledge of the many pupils whose education is at stake. Only as the teacher brings to the council table the driving forces found in her boys and girls, their interests and needs, and freely reveals her own bent and ability will the program be effective.

The need of attention on this point is revealed by the steps in constructing supervisory programs given by Burton.³ Step five in his plan reads as follows: "Publish the plan in printed or mimeographed form. Place it in the hands of teachers, supervisors, and principals, and, if necessary, devote a general meeting to explanation and discussion. The amount of teacher participation used in constructing the plan in the first place will determine, in some measure, the course to be followed here." It is evident from Burton's discussion that the basic significance of the teacher's participation was not apparent to him.

Here we find some implication as to the scope of a supervisory program. What we desire is growing teachers and improvement in the educational opportunities of boys and girls. There is evident advantage in a coöperative, concentrated attack upon a common problem by the entire force. However, such a program may be selected and concentrated upon for the convenience of the supervisor or for mere administrative efficiency. Sometimes it is undertaken in order to provide material for individual

research or for publication. While concentration has its advantages, any program should be so generously conceived that each individual teacher may find in it an opportunity to work upon the problem in ways that will enable her to render her greatest contribution and find keenest satisfaction.

In carrying out any program provision for variation must be made. The teacher is one member of a developing situation. Aim implies intelligence. This feature will influence both the nature of the plan itself and its administration. A program may be so conducted that the teacher can do nothing but follow prescribed procedure, or the plan itself may be so exact and determined that variation will be a fault.

If we state definitely the objectives or outcomes for the year and "outline for each objective the specific and detailed procedures which will be utilized in achieving the objective," we are not thinking in terms of an intelligent teacher dealing with unique individuals but in terms of administrative efficiency and definite businesslike procedure. We cannot bring over into supervisory planning the principles of the industrial and business world without a tremendous sacrifice. Yet there is a strong tendency in this direction. In Burton's program, previously referred to, the element of flexibility is mentioned as a final point. It seems, however, merely to have been added as one more point rather than the expression of a principle basis in all program thinking.

The nature of aim suggests certain conclusions relating to standards in supervision. Desire for standards may arise from two sources. We may wish them as a means of stimulating and focusing effort, increasing achievement, and enabling us to evaluate the results. We may, on the

³ The Making of Supervisory Programs, W. H. Burton, *Elementary School Journal*, Jan., 1926, p. 375.

other hand, wish standards mainly as a means of getting things settled, knowledge of where we are and where we are going. One of the significant implications of school work that provides for aims on the part of children and for intelligent guidance by the teacher is that it raises a question as to standardization of the old type. Tentative standards of attainment may be suggested. Standards in the form of principles of procedure, principles for selecting subject matter, principles bearing upon the quality of experience provided for the child, principles relating to the nature of teacher-pupil relationships, etc., may be set forth. But they should be upon the level of principles, *i.e.*, they are to be used as guiding suggestions in an attempt to solve each particular situation intelligently.

Even specific objectives or standards have a place. They represent a laudable attempt to rise above vagueness and generalities. But if the attainments which children are to reach are definitely set forth and expected of all, then is the implication of "aim" ignored. If the "standards" for teaching procedure are specified in detail and rigidly observed, then is the teacher's activity reduced to the level of mere technique. Since aims at any one time are to arise out of the situation and express the most effective combination of forces at work, and since pupils are variable, since interests, activities, abilities, and needs are an unknown quantity, since the teacher is likewise an unknown individual, our grade attainments and specific objectives as invariable goals are ruled out. This conclusion applies with equal force to the so-called "standards of supervision." Good teaching cannot be so finally and specifically predetermined.

It is not a sufficient observation of this implication of the nature of aim to provide merely for variation in quantity. We are ignoring its full meaning if we do not

provide for qualitative difference. Unless we look upon specific predetermined objectives merely as suggestive and provide in our leadership for variations in quality as well as quantity, then teaching and supervision are reduced to the level of drill where facts, habits, and skills are concerned and to either direct or indirect indoctrination for attitudes and ideals.

The nature of aim has a definite bearing upon the use of the rating scale. The purpose of supervision from the present point of view is to help the teacher realize a most effective combination of the forces at work in her school. This quality is not uniform. The methods and procedure are not uniform, yet the rating scale implies a uniform standard. As a suggestive chart for supervisory examination or for self-criticism by the teacher, it is good. As a standard if rigidly applied for judging instruction, it does not provide for intelligence on the part of the teacher. It would tend to mechanize instruction. Detroit has attempted to meet this problem somewhat by providing different scales for different conditions. This is better than one, but if artistic teaching is to be encouraged, then each teacher must be judged as to the extent to which she, in the light of educational principles and values, intelligently meets the situation before her.

In order that supervisory efforts may be exerted toward the attainment of aims that are related to the school situation, it is important that a supervisor know a teacher as an individual and that a spirit of cooperation exist between them. The use of a rating scale tends to blind the supervisor to the teacher's special abilities. It tends to produce mechanical judgments. The use of a rating scale distracts the teacher's attention from pupil activities, pupil needs, and the peculiar demands of the situation, or from her own special ability. She becomes conscious of the

supervisor's judgment of her standing as compared with others. The use of the rating scale by the supervisor is contrary to the first principle stated in this paper. It tends to develop antagonism between supervisor and teacher instead of a mutual sympathy. The supervisor is critic and judge, not helper.

All this has certain definite implications for the training of supervisors. The supervisor is to serve the teacher, to assist her in more effectively coördinating the activities and forces of her school for greater educational returns. The nature of this service depends upon the situation. The program of work is to be discovered and developed to fit the situation. This is to be so conducted that it is not only made to fit the individual teacher and her problems but is to be handled so that at each step it further adjusts itself to the demands of a developing, changing situation. The supervisor is to evaluate teaching in terms of the degree of intelligence and artistry

each teacher exhibits in meeting her own situation rather than by some standard type or rule. Ability to do this depends not upon a mastery of ready-made solutions. Job analysis of a supervisor's duties with specific training for each will not produce the kind of supervisor needed. Such training will prepare one to meet such problems. It does not prepare one to meet successfully a novel problem. And in education, unless one shuts his eyes to significant differences, all problems are in part novel. While best current practices should be intimately known to the supervisor and effective ways of meeting typical situations ready at hand, the type of supervision implied in the "nature of aim" demands a supervisor intimately acquainted with the fundamental principles of education and of the learning process. Only from such a background is the supervisor able to face novel situations, evaluate this new combination of forces, and work out a novel and satisfactory solution.

AN EXPERIMENT IN VOCABULARY BUILDING

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The searchlight of standard tests showed English accomplishment below what should be attained. A diagnosis of the situation made it clear that work in strengthening or building vocabulary was urgent. The problem was attacked by an interested and thoughtful group of teachers. The outstanding trends mentioned in this report suggest merely the wide initiative of the teaching corps.

While the goal was to arouse the sentence and paragraph sense in the consciousness of the child, the teachers set about enlarging vocabulary command through vital experience so that each member of the group might express himself more appropriately, more effectively, and more clearly. In the effort to organize ideas into definite sequence, such ideals as (1) sticking to the point, (2) being clear, (3) leaving out the unnecessary, (4) beginning and ending strongly, (5) being courteous in manner as well as correct in speech, (6) supplying concrete details, were constant objectives.

In the procedure all school subjects have offered opportunity for enlargement both directly and indirectly. Particularly meaningful and rich experiences of the individual or group have been capitalized. The various groups have initiated and adapted few or many activities as their needs evidenced and the judgment of the teacher determined. The teachers have recognized Colvin's statement, "It is not the facts and habits that have been acquired in the learning process that count so much, as the disposition to learn new facts and acquire new habits." With this philosophy in mind, together with a building scheme to meet

the needs of the group, the project was launched with a definite plan (1) to create a proper mind-set or readiness through desire to enlarge vocabulary; (2) to eliminate some few undesirable forms of speech by the use of desirable forms, to make this practice result in satisfaction, the improper use result in displeasure; (3) to use emulation by having the group check and record growth in some way. The experiment as carried out included activities in:

1. The building of vocabulary suggested by a picture.
2. Matching exercises consisting of sets of opposites, homonyms, synonyms.
3. Classification exercises.
4. Self-selected, purposeful activity to eliminate some common errors.
5. Class exercises in word substitution or word choice.
6. Vocabulary booklets.

PICTURE-SUGGESTED VOCABULARY

First and second grades have benefited through this exercise, which has progressed in two ways: first, through conversation about a picture; by question and suggestion, the children have contributed in sentences the words or phrases suggested by the picture. New and desirable words are placed on the board by the teacher. The picture and vocabulary are then put on a suitable mount.

A typical exercise observed, proceeded in this way. The picture is a landscape with a small child being annoyed by a large goose, which is the leader of a flock. In the distance is a red-roofed farmhouse surrounded by an orchard. The many trees

cast soft purple shadows over the greater part of the picture.

Teacher: "Here is a picture I think you will enjoy."

1st child: "My, there's a lot of ducks!"

2nd child: "There's a whole herd of them!"

3rd child: "You don't say *herd* for ducks, you say *herd* for cows."

Teacher: "What should you say when you speak of many ducks?"

3rd child: "You say *flock*."

Teacher: "What is the new word Dick gave you?"

Children: "Flock."

Teacher: "We cut ducks in art last week. Were they like these?"

5th child: "These have longer necks."

6th child: "Maybe these are geese."

Teacher: Writes *geese*.

3rd child: "When I was on a farm once a goose chased me."

Teacher: Writes *goose* beside *geese*. "When would you use *goose*?"

5th child: "When you talk about one, you say *goose*."

The completed exercise contributed the following words:

geese	tree top	webbed feet	hissing
goose	tree trunk	farm house	orchard
flock	red-roofed	nine	

In the oral composition of a personal experience, the children are encouraged to use some of the new vocabulary. Some teachers have written the contributions of the group in notebooks that they might be read later. This has also been an aid to the teacher in checking vocabulary growth. The underlined words show the carry-over of the vocabulary work of ten children.

FIRST GRADE ORAL COMPOSITION

1. "Once when I was at Minnehaha Falls, I saw a *flock* of ducks swimming. They came up to the *shore*. I saw that they had *webbed feet*."

2. "We have a bird house in our back yard. It is in the *tree top*. Uncle put a ladder up against the *tree trunk* when he put the bird house up. We put a baby sparrow in it."

3. "My grandfather used to let me feed his chickens. He had a big *flock* of them. An old gobbler used to feed with them. He pecked me one day with his sharp bill."

4. "When we used to feed the chickens on the farm, they came running in big *flocks*. They came so fast they almost made us tumble over."

5. "My grandfather was working in his *orchard* one day. He was painting the *tree trunks* so that the *insects* would not get into the bark. An old tree fell on his leg and hurt him so he had to go to the hospital. His leg grew back on, though."

6. "When it stormed the other night I was looking out the window. The clouds were *purplish blue*. I was afraid."

7. "I have a *bright yellow* canary at home. Yesterday Mother gave him water for his bath. My *careless* canary splashed the water all over me."

8. "We have an *old-fashioned garden* at home. There are pansies, petunias, and many other *beautiful flowers* in it. I water the garden every day with my little *sprinkling can*."

9. "I have a garden of my very own. Would you like to know how I planted it? First I spaded it. Then I raked it very smoothly. I made little *furrows* and planted the seeds. After I covered the seeds with *rich black dirt*, I watered the garden with my little *sprinkling can*."

10. "I needed some *rich black dirt* for my garden. When Mr. White brought the load of dirt, his horses stepped on mother's garden. She was very glad that she had not planted many of the seeds. Now I am helping her make a new garden."

In the second procedure the children mounted small pictures on 5" x 9" cardboard. A few words suggested by the picture were written on the mounts. This type of material was used:

1. For exercises giving practice in the use of verb forms such as *I see, I saw, I have, I had*, etc.

2. For building a sentence with alphabet cards in desk builders, or writing sentences on the board.

3. For expression in a short paragraph.

4. To suggest a personal experience.

When sentences are constructed in desk builders, the teacher places on the board the good beginning words or phrases suggested by the children, such as, *I have, Here is, This is*. The child chooses, if necessary, a beginning suitable to the picture and vocabulary.

Two games have helped to build paragraphs. The sandman may cause the child to dream; or a fairy godmother may turn a child into the object represented in his picture. The italicized words show the vocabulary of several pictures.

TYPICAL B2 STORIES SHOWING CARRY-OVER OF SIX CHILDREN

1. "I am a *poor little lost lamb*. A *farmer* found me when I was *bleating* in the field. I hope he finds my mother too."

2. "I am a *beautiful yellow butterfly*. My wings *flutter* when I fly. I don't like the boys to catch me."

3. "I dreamed that I was an *eagle*. My nest was on a *mountain peak*. When I went *soaring* through the sky all the other birds were afraid of me."

4. "I dreamed that I was a *wee brownie*. One day I fooled the cat and *changed* myself into a mouse. When pussy tried to catch me I turned into a brownie again. She was so *startled* at my *pranks*."

5. "Last night I went to a birthday party. When they gave me my ice cream I couldn't eat another *morsel*."

6. "I was *hostess* Saturday. I had a tea party. We were *mannerly at the table*."

MATCHING EXERCISES

These exercises consist of lists of words written on tagboard. Beside the word is a blank space in which the worker lays the small word card on which is the word that

is the opposite, a synonym or a homonym, as the exercise dictates. Checking has been carried on in three ways: (1) the teacher checks, (2) a child who has completed an exercise checks, (3) the pupil checks himself from proof. Upon accurate completion of an exercise, the child writes his name on the envelope provided for the small word cards. Through such exercises, children have become acquainted with names of meats, staple groceries, dry goods, fruits, flowers, vegetables, toys, games, food, clothing, animals, and birds.

CLASSIFICATION EXERCISE

This is similar to the matching exercise. Upon blank spaces on a cardboard the child lays, in the proper place, the word cards for the names of articles of that class. As a variation the teacher may write numbered words on the blackboard. The child then places the proper numeral on his card or paper. These exercises are checked in the same way as the matching exercises.

TYPICAL CLASSIFICATION EXERCISE

Meat	Dry Goods	Groceries
<i>mutton</i>	<i>ribbon</i>	<i>sugar</i>
<i>bacon</i>	<i>pins</i>	<i>vinegar</i>
<i>beef</i>	<i>cotton</i>	<i>salt</i>
<i>ham</i>	<i>gingham</i>	<i>flour</i>

Matching and classification exercises have preceded talks on such topics as toys, games, pets, and home.

SELF-SELECTED PURPOSEFUL ACTIVITIES

Space will permit but brief mention of some of these activities, which were carried on with much zeal on the part of the children, with corresponding results.

1. An orchard arranged on a sand table offered opportunity for the children to plant trees, the fruit of which was correct English. The crop of fruit grew as correct English was used. Errors caused a pluck-

ing of some piece of fruit for each wrong expression.

2. A pig sty, in which the child who used incorrect English must place his name and word, was located in another part of this room.

3. A simple chart on which was sketched two old men with suitcases labelled *Nice* and *Good* respectively, bore the heading, "Nice and Good need a vacation." Below on the chart were the children's substitutions for the two words.

- (1) An interesting book.
- (2) An amusing story.
- (3) A pleasant time.
- (4) A happy time.
- (5) A delightful time.
- (6) A delicious apple.
- (7) A kind mother.
- (8) A well-behaved child.
- (9) Warm clothing.
- (10) Strong shoes.
- (11) A becoming hat.

4. A hospital, in which was placed the names of children who were tagged for use of certain errors the group decided to eliminate, was quite effective with another group. Correct use of the word released the patient to the convalescent ward first, then to the sun parlor. Three correct usages permitted the discharge of the patient.

5. A skit written by a fourth-grade group was another effective activity. Poor English vagabonds were captured and sentenced to life imprisonment as the group refused to parole them.

6. A monthly edition of a room paper was stimulating to a second-grade group. Contributions were judged by the group. The most interesting account of a birthday, the best bed-time stories and poems, together with accepted news, lost and found items, good English contests, cross-word puzzles, and jokes made up the issues. The following are typical poems:

A FUNNY MAN

A funny little man
With a kiddy car,
Couldn't go fast,
Couldn't go far,
Couldn't go to market,
Couldn't go to town,
Couldn't go up a hill,
Couldn't go down,
Couldn't turn circles,
Couldn't go straight,
Couldn't be early,
And never was late.

MOTHER'S DAY

Mother's Day is coming.
Blue birds are coming too,
All in their best dresses,
All are trimmed in blue.

SPRING

Spring has come hither,
Birds have built their nests.
Robins, blue birds, and swallows
All invite their guests.

REPRESENTATIVE LOCALS

We are going to have a picnic next week.
Ice cream will be served.

The lights were out during the storm last night.

We have some new trees and shrubs on our school lawn. Let's all try to take care of them.

We had a paper sale May 6, 1925. The side we were working for got second prize or, in other words, \$2.00.

WORD CHOICE EXERCISES

As a preliminary assignment or warming-up exercise, topics or titles for talks are discussed in the light of variety or choice of words to express the same or similar ideas. The words suggested by the group are written on the board by the teacher: i.e., for *ran*, substitute *sped*, *fled*, *tore*, *dashed*; for *went*, use *tiptoed*, *sneaked*, *stole*, *stepped cautiously*, *crept stealthily*.

Frequently the picture will suggest words which otherwise would not come to mind. A picture of the sandman called forth these sentences in a B-Fourth grade:

1. "The drowsy children were closely cuddled together in the cozy hammock while the sandman, stealthily creeping through the twilight, threw the golden sand into their half-closed eyes."

2 "The sandman came slyly stealing through the light of the mellow moon."

3. "The sandman came slyly stealing through the shimmering pines, with his dusky brown bag upon his back."

4. "The drowsy children are happily dreaming in the cozy hammock with the mellow moonlight sending its golden rays upon them."

VOCABULARY BOOKLETS

Third and fourth grades have found this activity helpful. Words written in the booklets have been taken from (1) reading, (2) conversation of superiors, (3) matching exercises. As a rule the group has decided upon the two or three words to be put in the booklet each time. Some groups have chosen to write only the word for future reference; others have written a sentence, an explanation, or a meaning with the word. In all oral or written work, use of booklet words has been commended and encouraged.

PAGES FROM A THIRD GRADE BOOKLET

except—leave out	companion—close friend
mist—fine rain	represent—stand for
cuddle—get close	seize—grab
disagreeable-unpleasant	custom—habit
envious—jealous	console—soothe
perform—to do	adorned—decorated
amazed—surprised	odor—smell

CARRY-OVER IN THIRD GRADE WORK

Sentences from third grade composition:

1. "My umbrella *sheltered* me from the rain."

2. "I *disturbed* my father so much that he scolded me."

3. "Cuffy smelled a *familiar odor*."

4. "I was *amazed* to see my turtle jump out of the bowl."

5. "My dog was *bruised* by an automobile."

Compositions showing vocabulary carry-over:

A GREAT SURPRISE

1. "My father and I went fishing for sun fish. We did not *suppose* that we could get any bigger fish. My father sat in the stern of the boat. *Presently* I felt a bite. When I drew it in I had a large pike. I was greatly *surprised* and *excited*."

A SURPRISE

2. "One day I went out to play. I went by the side of the house. Something black jumped at me. I was *astonished* and ran into the house. When I looked back I *discovered* it was only our black cat. I felt very foolish."

MY SURPRISE

3. "One night I had to go to bed early. I turned out the light and *smuggled* in bed. *Suddenly* I heard a noise. I was *startled*. I jumped out of bed and looked all around. It was only my kitty who had come to say good night."

A THRIFTY BIRD

4. "Woodpeckers are *thrifty* birds. When they are not hungry they put grasshoppers and insects in cracks in the trees. They give other birds things to eat. I like the woodpecker because he is not selfish."

A FIRE

5. "One night I saw a *blazing* fire about three blocks from my house. I ran all the way over there. When I reached the place I saw that it was only a *huge* bon-fire."

Carry-over from vocabulary booklets as checked through a day in a B-4th grade:

1. "We should use *moderate* speed in writing."

2. "I have learned by *experience*."

3. "Richard is not *aware of the importance* of using movement."

4. "Miss Nelson *affirmed* what Kenneth said."

5. "Marguerite *inspired* me to do better in writing."

6. "My *ambition* is to get a button."

7. "When we went to the library, all the children came *arrayed* in their best clothes."

8. "We saw *innumerable* books in the library."

9. "My mother said I should *express* my *gratitude* to you for taking me to the library."

10. "The people in the reading room looked *intelligent*."

11. "We crossed Third Street when there was *■ lull* in the traffic."

12. "We had a good *view* of the Mississippi River."

13. "Are we going to give *narratives* today?"

14. "Antoinette's mother is very *indulgent* to her."

15. "I have made a *firm resolve* to stand on my two feet."

16. "The eighth notes are *inseparable* when a quarter note receives one beat."

17. "They are *firm* friends." "They are *staunch* friends."

Fourth-grade composition showing carry-over:

WIND

1. During Christmas vacation, I went to bogganing with mother and father. They *insisted* that I sit in front. I didn't *realize* that the wind would blow the snow in my face as it did. When we reached the bottom of the hill, I was snow from my head to my feet. Everybody laughed, but I didn't think it was funny. No one can *persuade* me to sit in front again.

HELPING MOTHER

2. My mother was ill a few days ago. I helped her as much as I could. I washed the dishes and made the beds. It is a *blessing* to have *■* mother to work for. Mother was very

thankful for what I had done. I was very glad that she thought my work was well done.

EARNING AND SAVING

3. Every winter I shovel snow for *■* lady. She gives me a quarter for doing it. It is hard work when the snow is deep because it hurts my back. I am sure I earn that quarter then. I save it to put in my bank. This draws *interest* and *increases* my money. I'm going to buy a baseball suit with all this money.

Imaginative stories written about a series of pictures in the English textbook:

WHEN TOMMY RAN AWAY

1. Tommy had stolen some sandwiches that his mother had made. She caught him and made him sit on the chair in the corner for fifteen minutes. "I can't stand this any longer," said Tommy. He *decided* to run away. He *sneaked* out the front door and *sped* toward the river.

The prettiest butterfly *fluttered* in front of him. He chased it. He was having such a fine time that he did not *notice* that it was growing dark. Some bats *flapped* their wings. It terrified him greatly. The moon came out and seemed to say, "Why did you run away?" Suddenly he heard a bark. It was Roby's. His father came out of the bushes and took him home.

At his mother's knee he begged to be forgiven. She did not punish him because he had been punished enough. Tommy had learned a lesson.

2. Tommy had been *■* bad boy and was sent to the corner. The clock's hands seemed to move *as slowly as a snail*. He wished now he had not stolen the cookies. His mother had gone to the store. He was *determined* to run away. He took some lunch and *flew* in the *opposite direction* from the store.

He thought it great fun *wandering* by the brook and picking flowers, for it was *■* very nice day. Before he *realized* it, it was night. A bat flew down. He jumped on a *twig*. It broke. He thought it was a bear after him. He dropped his hat and *fled* in terror. *Imagine* his *relief* when he heard Jack's bark and *■* his father.

His father and mother *questioned* him until it was time for bed. A very *penitent* boy was Tommy. He had punished himself more than his mother had.

3. Thirty minutes seemed to Tommy like thirty hours. He had pulled the cat's tail. For *punishment* his mother made him sit in a corner. He said to himself, "I think I will run away and play all afternoon." He *tiptoed* to the pantry and *grabbed* a sack of crackers. He *stepped cautiously* out the door and looked up the street and down.

His way was clear. He *dashed* down the street until he was out of sight. While chasing butterflies and *skipping* stones into the brook, the time went *rapidly*. Before he knew it, *darkness* was on. A bat flew over his head and a *ghostly voice* from the *tree top* said, "Who are you?" He was *filled with terror*. He wished that he hadn't run away. Tommy heard some awful sounds. He heard a dog barking and saw a light. It was his father coming with a lantern.

He went home with his father. He asked his mother to forgive him. Tommy told his mother that he would never run away again.

A-FOURTH GRADE LETTERS

1. Dear Mother:

I learned from grandma that father was ill. I am very sorry. Grandma says I am always getting into *mischiefs*. She says she always has to scold me, but I don't care because I have so much fun.

I had an *exciting adventure* the other day. It may not seem very *thrilling* to you, but it was at the *moment*. I went out to get some eggs. I reached in for an egg, but instead I drew out black pussy. I think it was a *peculiar* place for a pussy, don't you?

Your loving daughter.

2. Dear Mother:

I want you to *persuade* father to let me stay here all winter. Tell him that grandma says my *behavior* is *unusually* fine. I am *contented* here.

I had an *exciting adventure* today. I went out to the hen house to gather eggs. I *perceived* a *well-hidden* nest. I said to myself, "My, that nest ought to be well filled!" So I

put my hand in the nest and I felt something that was very slippery. I saw it when it jumped out of the nest. My, how I did run! When I reached home I was *exhausted*. Grandmother said she was *astonished* when she saw me running so fast. Grandma *comforted* me and said it was a wonder I wasn't bitten, for what I saw was a black snake.

Your loving daughter.

3. Dear Mother:

I want to come home. I don't like it out here any more. There is too much *confusion*. Yesterday the dog was so *disagreeable* he wouldn't eat a thing. The hens wouldn't lay as many eggs as they are supposed to lay. Grandma and grandpa had such an *argument* over things, it was terrible. Everything was the same today, everything upside down in the barn-yard.

Why can't I go with you to New York? Please write and tell me why.

Your loving daughter.

CONCLUSION

Effectiveness of the remedial measures used could not be determined from so short an application. Certain attitudes and interests, however, have become evident.

1. A constructively critical observance of vocabulary at home and at school with a desirable mind-set.

2. Interest and coöperation on the part of the parents in vocabulary growth.

3. Increased interest in the subject of English throughout the daily activities, with a more purposeful unity with other school subjects.

4. Coöperation and increased initiative among members of the group.

5. A wholesome challenge of latent abilities.

6. Satisfaction that comes from a personal feeling that work has been well done.

On the part of the teacher there has been a vitalization in the teaching of English in its several aspects of composition, reading, and literature, as well as the satisfaction which comes from seeing her guidance result in steady growth.

MENTAL HYGIENE APPLIED TO FIRST GRADE TRAINING

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It is now an established fact that training and education should begin shortly after birth. During this period—the pre-school period—training should be directed toward the establishment of correct physical, mental, moral, and social habits.

Results, obtained by use of physical, mental, moral and social measurements, will aid in selecting those children who have obtained the required standards necessary for successful experience in first grade activities—as the first grade is now organized. Individual measurements viewed not only from a quantitative but also from a qualitative aspect promote respect for individuality. Individual intelligence tests reveal the mental age level; physical measurements indicate the extent of physical development—as determined by the height and weight index, the state of molar teeth, eyes, ears, motor control, and speech development. It is difficult to separate moral and social development. Measurements of moral and social development on an age level basis are at present in an experimental stage. Qualitative estimates can be made by observing children in school activities which embrace responsibility, knowledge of right and wrong, respect for order, property, ownership, spirit of fair play, etc.

Respect for individuality, from a pedagogical standpoint, develops as a result of consideration and analysis of the different types of learner. At the present time interest centers primarily on the sociological viewpoint. While the primary root of all educative activity is in the instinctive, free,

impulsive attitudes and resulting activities of the individual child, the “big” purpose of school is to train toward coöperative and mutually helpful living. The sociologists tell us that most individuals fall into two types of learners: one, those who work best under the stimulus which comes from others, work better in coöperation than alone, learn more readily from books and respond to oral rather than written work; the other type, those who work better alone and from inner compulsion. The pedagogue describes two types of learners: one, those who learn to do by doing, that is, by self-education which develops qualities of leadership and leads to the production of original work; the other, those who respond to more or less didactic methods of the school. As training, not instruction, is the watchword of education, individuals inclined to follow the didactics of the school should be directed and encouraged to participate in independent activities—both individual and group projects. Thus training should direct activities toward social ends.

It is necessary to have an objective method of determining the type of learner. Recorded observations of each child (for a definite period of time) are helpful in analyzing and studying the reactions of each individual.

The writer found the following outline helpful in studying the six-year-old child. Thirty-one children were selected for observation. Individual tests (Binet-Simon) were given to this group. Chronological ages ranged from six years to six years

and ten months; Intelligence Quotients ranged from ninety to one hundred and ten.

I. Physical Age.

1. Weight.
2. Height.
3. First molars (developed or undeveloped).
4. Condition of eyes.
5. Condition of ears.
6. Speech control.
7. Motor control.
8. Posture { sitting.
standing.
9. Morbidity history { Nationality.
Size of family.
Kind of home.
Sickness — personal
or any family sick-
ness.

II. Pedagogical Age.

1. Reading.
 - a. Has the child expressed a desire to read? How expressed?
 - b. Does he use reading as a "tool"—for pleasure or for enjoyment?
 - c. Does he apply "phonics"? Does he use phonics independently?
 - d. Is he reading mere "words"?
2. Writing.
 - a. Do you find the muscles sufficiently developed to control and use chalk or pencil readily?
 - b. Is writing correlated with other activities—label drawings, etc? Transfer printed words into written?
 - c. How is this interest expressed?
3. Drawing (free).
 - a. What element do you find represented in his drawings—humor, grotesqueness, incongruity, exaggeration?
 - b. Are they natural reactions to his feelings?
 - c. Do they give satisfaction? If so, how expressed?
4. Manipulation (occupations).
 - a. Record examples of this activity as

expressed (in use of building blocks, tools, collecting, etc.).

- b. Are they original, imitative, or the result of suggestions?
- c. Are they simple or complex in construction—individual or group projects?
- d. Note the "span" of interest.
5. Habits.
 - a. List habits already formed (cleanliness, food habits, posture).
 - b. List new habits formed as a matter of training (brushing teeth, working habits, degree of coöperation noted).
 - c. Note whimsical habits (eye movements, twirling buttons when talking, etc.).
6. Moral Reactions.
 - a. Is child obedient?
 - b. Does he respect authority—ownership—know difference between right and wrong?
 - c. Does the child lie? Are the lies imaginary or without "set purpose"?
 - d. Is he selfish—does he steal?
7. Social Reactions.
 - a. Does child play games well? (with zest?)
 - b. Is he interested in the games of the group?
 - c. Is he a prig? A leader? Does he prefer to work individually or in group?
 - d. Is he a good follower?
 - e. Does he accept punishment?
8. Emotional Reactions.
 - a. Type.
 1. Emotional (easily kindled, strongly felt)?
 2. Neutral?
 3. Unemotional (repressed or just naturally placid)?
 - b. Pleasant or unpleasant attitude toward things and persons, strong or weak preferences—prejudices?
 - c. Does he face a difficult situation or task?
 - d. Display dependent or independent attitude?

- e. Is he affectionate? How is this expressed?
- f. Does he dream or walk in sleep? Has he any fears?

9. Behavior.

- a. Concentrate on one child for an entire session, record every movement, everything attempted, everything accomplished (reactions in work, play, leisure, etc.).
- b. Concentrate on one child while under controlled conditions, *i.e.*, a reading lesson. Note span of attention, interest, alertness, etc.
- c. Concentrate on one child while under controlled conditions with reaction delayed.

10. Record signs of "vocational" interests.

The following case study illustrates the type of summary made from the study of recorded observations.

Case I. Boy Chronological Age 6 yrs.
Mental Age 6 yrs.
Intelligence Quotient 100

- 1. Positive physical record.
- 2. Negative record in reading and writing. (No desire expressed.)
- 3. Drawings are purposeful, logical, and detailed.
- 4. Occupations indicate that this boy enjoys constructing large toys (wooden). Projects are lasting.
- 5. Positive habits established. (Health and work.)
- 6. Positive social and moral record.
- 7. Emotional—emotions easily incited—disturbs others (not malicious).
- 8. Positive leadership record—leads games and other group activities.
- 9. Behavior—is mischievous—easily upset.
- 10. Vocational interests—desires to be a foreman in a shop.

Conclusion: This boy shows creative ability. Drawing and occupational work seem to be major interests. He has not experienced a need for reading or writing. Activities suggest that qualities of leadership have been

developed. He is the type of learner who learns to do by doing.

Case II. Girl Chronological Age 6 yrs.
Mental Age 6 yrs., 6 mos.
Intelligence Quotient 108

- 1. Positive physical record.
- 2. Positive record in reading and writing. Desires to read—new and difficult words add zest. Free play period devoted to reading—enjoys analytical element.
- 3. Drawings are purposeful and original.
- 4. Occupations indicate that this girl enjoys constructing larger toys; projects are lasting.
- 5. Positive habits established.
- 6. Positive moral and social development.
- 7. Emotional—has decided preferences; strives to obtain justice—individual or group.
- 8. Positive leadership record.
- 9. Positive behavior record—seeks approbation.
- 10. Vocational interest—desires to be a mother—enjoys making doll's clothes, etc. Also cares for younger children.

Conclusion: This girl has creative ability and is a leader. She is interested in occupational work and reading. Reading is a pleasure which fills a need. She could also be rated as the type of child who learns to do by doing.

Case III. Boy Chronological Age 6 yrs., 5 mos.
Mental Age 6 yrs., 9 mos.
Intelligence Quotient 105

- 1. Positive physical record.
- 2. Positive reading record—not intensely interested—does not fill a need. Negative writing record—no desire noted.
- 3. Drawings natural reactions to feelings—give pleasure and satisfaction—are complex and complete.
- 4. Occupations indicate creative ability.
- 5. Positive habits established.
- 6. Negative moral and social record—noted in lack of group coöperation, selfishness, egotism, inability to face tasks.
- 7. Rated as neutral in emotional reactions.
- 8. Negative leadership record—a follower.

9. Negative behavior record.

10. Vocational interests—desires to be a carpenter.

Conclusion: This child is in the individualistic stage; he has a strain of negation which needs direction—needs to be stimulated to group activity. Ability to read is evidently the result of training.

Joy of discovery, capacity for invention, and vivid imaginations color the experiences of the six-year-old child. Knowledge is secured and clinched by productive and creative use. Thus environment should provide the stimuli which will enable each child to purpose judiciously, plan intelligently, and judge results. The school provides companionship which promotes group activities. Each child has an opportunity to reconstruct his experiences through the medium of the group.

Language, which is more or less a social heritage, is also stimulated by the group activities of the school. The degree of linguistic development at this period depends partly on the environmental contacts of the pre-school period. Words and sentences become meaningful because of the interplay and adjustments made within the groups. Vocabularies are acquired along the line of interests. As desire or voluntary interests, from a hygienic standpoint, should be the key which motivates first-grade activity, let us stop and note the interests of the six-year-old child. The following list expresses the interests of the group of thirty-six first-grade children previously mentioned.

Clothes.
Cutting out doll's dress.
Cutting out pictures.
Reading.
Writing.
Playing baseball.
Playing school.
Playing house.
Playing store.

Playing mother's activities.

Playing soldier.

Playing cowboy.

Playing tag.

Playing with doll carriage.

Playing with sister.

Interests of this group center on imitative and representative plays. Three children in this group display four interests, ten children three, while twelve have but one interest. One notes that many of the same interests were expressed in the spontaneous drawings of the group.

Drawing is another way of telling a story by depicting that which is recognized and yet cannot be expressed in words. It is noted that environment, season, and previous school training influence drawings. The six-year-old level is termed the picture-making stage—buildings, furniture, trees, dolls, play and adult activities are popular in this group. The human figure, which represents the most difficult subject for the adult, is frequently drawn by the six-year-old child. One is impressed by the "courage of attack." The following examples illustrate the type of stories which the drawings (of this group) told:

1. The man who is driving the auto is looking back to see if anyone is hopping on.
2. This man is going into his house for dinner.
3. The girl is carrying a loaf of bread home for dinner.

While pedagogues differ in stating the age at which a child should begin to read, when phonics should be introduced, the amount of time that should be devoted to oral and silent reading, the hygienists tell us that the time to begin reading is when the child expresses a desire to read and feels the need of this tool. Interest is one factor which assures progress in reading. Various teaching methods can be adapted to meet the child's interest and

activities. Stimuli adapted from the social activities of the home, school, familiar rhymes and action words, dramatic telling of stories, pictures and sugar-coated games help to make reading popular. It is evident that reading holds its own among the other interests of this selected group of children. Thirty children or eighty-four per cent of this group express a desire to read. The following samples of reports indicate varied description of this interest.

Case I. Boy Chronological Age 6 yrs., 3 mos.
Mental Age 6 yrs., 10 mos.
Intelligence Quotient 91

Loves to read; attacks unfamiliar stories and words; uses phonics independently.

Case II. Girl Chronological Age 6 yrs.
Mental Age 6 yrs., 6 mos.
Intelligence Quotient 108

Finds great pleasure in reading; reads extremely well, with confidence—difficulty of new word adds zest—sees analytical element—judgment keen.

At this period, chart and blackboard reading and the larger size type are used to develop positive reading attitude and habits. Hygienists urge a delay of "permanent" reading habits until a later period because of the hyperopic condition of the eye and the undeveloped arm muscles.

Successful experience in first grade necessitates consideration of several factors: mental, physical, moral, and social development; of individual as well as group interests; of curriculum—recognizing that subject material should be based upon the desires and interests of the group as well as those of the individual.

A SURVEY OF CLASSROOM WORK

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In our supervisory program this year we are employing with some degree of satisfaction the Classroom Survey. The form used for this purpose is as follows:

A STUDY OF CLASSROOM WORK BY THE TEACHING STAFF OF NORFOLK ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS, GRADES I-VI

In the development of the Norfolk school system, the best thought on the part of each teacher is necessary. Therefore, you are asked to study your classroom work in the light of the best practices in education today and write on this and any additional pages needed your contribution to the questions raised. It is not expected that any teacher will make a contribution on every question, but it is thought that

each teacher might make a contribution on at least one phase of the work mentioned.

Purpose: Improvement of the Norfolk elementary schools by the development on the part of each teacher of worthwhile standards by which classroom work may be judged.

I. Positive Approach.

Measured by the best practices in education today:

1. Can you suggest any improvement in your classroom management?

Points to be considered: Aims of School Discipline, Appeal to Highest Motives, Rewards, Class Spirit, Student Participation in Control, Extra-curricular Activities, Moral Development.

Reference showing best practices

today: *Constructive School Discipline*, Smith, American Book Company.

2. Can you suggest any improvement in the methods of teaching employed in your classroom?

- a. Are the methods used based on the best principles of teaching?

Points to be considered: Determination of Aims, Types of Lessons, Organization of Work, Building Situations to Arouse Appropriate Motives, Ability to Secure and Hold Interest, Ability to Stimulate Real Thought, Stimulation of Habit Formation, Providing for Individual Needs, Supervisory Study Periods.

References in which the best principles of teaching are discussed: *Principles of Teaching*, Minor, Houghton Mifflin Company; *Informal Talks to Teachers*; *Foundations of Method*, Kilpatrick, Macmillan Company.

- b. Schoolroom Activities and Types of Methods.

References indicating the best present-day practices: *Unified Kindergarten and First Grade*, Parker and Temple, Ginn and Company; *The Primary School*, Moore, Houghton Mifflin Company; *Brief Guide to the Project Method*, Hosie and Chase, World Book Company; *Types of Elementary Teaching and Learning*, Parker, Ginn and Co.

- c. Special Methods in

- (1) Reading.

References showing desirable practices: *Silent and Oral*

Reading, Stone, Houghton Mifflin Company; *How to Teach Reading*, Pennell and Cusack, Houghton Mifflin Company; *Silent Reading*, Germane and Germane, Row, Peterson Company.

- (2) English.

Reference showing desirable standards: *Self-Help Teaching in English*, Wohlfarth, World Book Company.

- (3) Geography.

References showing desirable methods: *Teaching Geography by Problems*, Smith, Doubleday, Page & Company; *Practical Teaching*, McMurtry, B. F. Johnson Publishing Company; *Unit Study in Geography*, Clark, World Book Company.

- (4) History.

References showing present day practices: *Making History Graphic*, Knowlton, Scribner's Sons; *Supervised Study in History*, Simpson, Macmillan Company.

- (5) Arithmetic.

Reference showing ■ desirable point of view: *New Methods in Arithmetic*, Thorndike, Rand McNally.

II. Negative Approach:

1. Does there exist in your classwork any traditional or useless subject matter?

III. Miscellaneous or General.

Suggestions (contributions not included under other questions named).

A PROJECT IN CIVICS

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Ray Stannard Baker says, "Civilization is not control but self-control." These few words express the idea underlying this project, which aims not to teach about civics or concerning government but to give training in civics and practice in democracy.

Work along the lines indicated in the project outlined below was begun in the Park Street School, Milwaukee, about five years ago, by Mr. H. F. Washburne, principal of the school at that time. This was undoubtedly one of the first efforts ever made to establish a form of pupil government in a graded school. The experiment was watched with much interest by Superintendent Potter, and it was also given unusual publicity in the local newspapers. During the development of this plan, interest in it became so widespread that it grew to be quite a task to reply to the many inquiries that were received from almost every state in the Union. That this project attained a reasonable degree of success is perhaps best indicated by the fact that all Milwaukee schools are now required to work along some such line.

Later, Mr. Washburne was promoted to the Ninth Street School. Here he and his teachers are now working out a similar project, but in a course differing somewhat from that which he followed in the Park Street School. Because the project is no longer in an experimental stage with Mr. Washburne, and because, as it is now being worked out in the Ninth Street School, it approaches the problem from another angle, it is hoped that this account may prove helpful to those who are making their first attempt in this direction.

As in all work which departs from the beaten track of stereotyped teaching, much depends upon the enthusiasm of the teacher. This method certainly measures her devotion to the ideals of democracy and her personal participation in citizenship. It measures her wisdom in determining the degree to which the child is capable of self-government and her skill in enlisting the coöperation of the child.

When school opened last September, a general outline of the new plan of pupil participation and self-government was explained to the teachers by Mr. Washburne, and a time was set for the first primary election. Each class in Grades III to VIII was to be organized as a state, and the school as a whole into the Ninth Street School Republic. Each of the twenty states chose its own name, each being named after some prominent American such as Washington, Lincoln, Pershing, and others. At the primary election each state nominated candidates for the following offices: governor, lieutenant governor, treasurer, secretary of state, three to five judges, three to five policemen, and two senators.

Then came a week full of agitation and excitement, every candidate preparing a speech and delivering it before his fellow citizens. One girl, who was running for the senate from the state of Hamilton, even solicited the aid of Senator La Follette, from whom she received a very interesting letter. A week after the primaries, final elections were held, and the senate met for the first time. The principal, who is the adviser of the senate, just as the teacher is the adviser of the state, directed the or-

ganization of that body. The senate was made responsible for all matters which concern the entire republic or which call for the coöperation of several states. All matters affecting the state itself were left to the state. This gave the state the greatest possible freedom of action, as results show. One state made its police responsible for the orderly conduct of the class to and from the music room. Another set a penalty for whispering. A third made laws about keeping the floor clean. The teachers' guidance was needed to prevent the making of too many laws and of such as could not be enforced.

Each state also developed its own parliamentary procedure. In one state the citizens did not address the chair in any set form, but were recognized by the chair as "Citizen Levy," etc. In another, they addressed the chair as, "Madame Governor," and were called by their first names. One state gave all the officers their appropriate titles, as, "Chief of Police Hilson," "Secretary Buelow," and "Judge Hrica."

There were other differences. One state had a certain day for its meetings; another held its meeting the day after the meeting of the senate. One allowed the teacher to call the meeting at the request of the governor. In another, the teacher gave the governor a certain space on the blackboard as the official bulletin. There the governor wrote the notice of the meeting after consulting with the teacher. One state had its judges sit in conference on all cases. Another asked each of her five judges to hold court one day a week. A third required each judge to handle one type of offense. Some states taxed themselves; others raised no funds. When a state thought of something it felt was for the good of the entire school, or desired to render some service outside its state boundaries, it passed a resolution to that effect. These were put in writing, signed by the secretary of state

and the teacher, and were presented in the senate, where they were discussed and usually, but not always, adopted.

The senate also initiated legislation. Its activities have been varied. It divided the school grounds among the states, each one to be responsible for neatness in its section. It organized the handling of the milk in the nutrition service, between four and five hundred bottles of milk a day. It undertook to secure some needed school equipment. It obtained school badges for all citizens and ribbons for the officers. It wrote a constitution for the republic and sent it to the states for ratification. It established hall duty and yard supervision in charge of various states. It published a school journal, written by the five states in the departmentalized seventh and eighth grades.

State names were retained by the rooms in which they were first adopted, though the citizens moved to other states at the end of the first semester. This necessitated the calling of new primary elections and the entire reorganization of the states and of the senate. The teachers found the children much more familiar with the various procedures and ready to go right on. Many times a citizen has prefaced his motion or suggestion by saying, "When I was in the state of So and So, we did it this way," very much as do his elders. Each promotion promises to bring an enrichment of civic experience.

In several ways the children seem to have avoided some of the pitfalls into which adult citizens have fallen. There is no apathy at elections—everyone votes. Children of the very highest character and ability are chosen for office. The teacher may not know one child in the class at the beginning of the term, but the children know each other. The teachers have been amazed to find how well chosen and how capable the officers prove to be.

The project proper, of course, is not the organization of the class and school but includes all the activities which grow out of this organization. Or, we may say that the organization is the technic which makes it possible for the school as a whole and for each class to become aware of its problems and to assume some measure of responsibility for their solution.

Do not think that the teachers now have nothing to do because they have been relieved of the dearly loved tasks of yard duty and hall order supervision. Every step of the project brings new problems. One of these is keeping the judges from dealing too severely with offenders. Imagine a ten-year-old judge sentencing a child to write a penalty nine hundred times! Again, the teacher must try not to interfere unless a measure promises to be absolutely ineffective. It was with mingled feelings that a teacher controlled her impulse to interfere when a fourth grade judge pronounced this grave sentence: "Benny must write three hundred times, 'I must not do the Charleston on the stairs.'" It was gravely received and gravely executed; and, better yet, it worked.

In addition, the teacher must help the children work out the necessary procedure. In one state the police thought a verbal notice of arrest did not impress the culprit sufficiently, so they secured copies of the warrant and the subpoena from the nearest police station. The teacher helped them put what seemed practicable, under the circumstances, into simple form. The teacher

must also place responsibility where it belongs. One, hearing a boy say as he left the court, "Is he ever a judge!" answered simply, "You voted for him."

The many new problems that come up are only to be expected, for no one pretends that a project in any subject will solve all questions of instruction and discipline. In fact, a live project cannot but create many unusual situations. The only thing that anyone has ever promised for the project is that in working out a problem which he wants to solve, the child acquires, in addition to the ordinary facts and figures, concomitant values of even greater worth.

Is it conceivable that a child could be a citizen of the Ninth Street School Republic, semester after semester, from third grade to graduation, without mastering the idea of government, the essential difference between state and federal governments, the methods of nominations, primary and final elections, and the function of the courts?

If, besides this understanding and knowledge, the child gets the habit of voting at all elections (would that his father, mother, and teacher had it); of electing the best material available; of making no barriers of color or creed; of judging friend or foe alike; of being actuated not by the malicious intent of tale-bearing but by a real concern for the benefit of the state; of holding office without officiousness—if he acquires such habits as these, he has truly participated in democracy and been trained in civics.

CHANGES IN SCHOOL MANAGEMENT DEMANDED BY THE PROJECT METHOD

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The "project method" is based upon the working out of projects. The idea is not a new one. The early use of the word project in education was rather narrow. It referred to projects in manual training, household and industrial arts, but through the efforts of Dr. Kilpatrick in interpreting the educational philosophy of Dr. Dewey, the word has taken on a much broader meaning. It is now interpreted to mean any unit of purposeful experience or purposeful activity embodying an idea. There must be "a fixed aim, something to guide the process and furnish the drive."

The introducing of the project method into the schools will necessitate many changes, which should come gradually and not until they have been well tried out. It is not advisable to do away with old methods and machinery until new ones can be put in their places. Among the changes which will come with the introducing of the project method will be a change in the aims and ideals of the school. The chief aim of education in the past has been to acquire knowledge. The aim in the future will be to give that background of knowledge which is a necessary foundation upon which to build, but to give it in such a way as to make it usable in life experiences and not as so much dead, useless timber. The school of the past has striven to teach reading, writing, English, arithmetic, and other subjects as ends in themselves, rather than as tools to be used by the child in helping him to enter through experiences more fully into his social inheritance. Emphasis

in the past has been put upon promotion, passing examinations, fulfilling requirements for college entrance, graduation, etc. The school of the future will be engaged in developing the child to the limit of his capacity, in teaching him to think, in guiding him wisely into experiences which will lead to growth through purposeful activity, in fitting him for participation in life, in a democratic society, in cultivating ideals, training for citizenship, giving appreciations, and in building up ethical and moral standards. Other aims of the school will be to educate boys and girls so that they may be able to adjust themselves easily and intelligently to the constant changes of society and may be able to see their relationship to the world as a whole; to have an interest in and be willing to work for the highest good of society; to develop a world-wide patriotism, to give him breadth of view, enlarged interests, and make the child feel that he has a part in making the world a better place in which to live. Promotion to a higher grade will not be determined entirely by the knowledge acquired, the ability to read, write, spell, and so forth. It will rather be based upon the development of the child along various desirable lines.

In order to teach successfully by the project method there will have to be many changes in equipment. This is another reason why changes should not be made too rapidly, certainly not before the method has been well worked out. The old type of desk screwed down to the floor will be

a thing of the past. The schoolroom will become an attractive workshop, with comfortable chairs and tables, curtains, flowers, pictures, and various materials to help the children in working out their projects. For the very young children the arranged environment will contain not only things helpful in the working out of projects but also such things as may suggest projects. There should be materials to help the child in working out industrial projects, such as nails, tacks, boards, cardboard, wool, looms, spindles, tags, stickers, crayon, paints, pencils, books, pictures, clay, sand table, also tools for the carrying on of the work along various lines, such as hammer, saw, needles, pins, scissors, rulers, etc. In fact, the room should contain everything possible for the working out of interesting and useful projects. The teacher should anticipate the needs of the children along these various lines and constantly provide for their growth. For the older boys and girls there should be a shop or workroom as well as classrooms with tables and chairs, maps, books, newspapers, magazines, clippings, pictures, etc. There should be a library in the classroom or, better still, some arrangement by which children can go into the school library to work and have the necessary supervision.

The course of study for the school of tomorrow will be quite different from the cut and dried document which is in use at the present time in many of our schools. It will not be a thing imposed from above as it has been in the past, a plan of work laid out by the superintendent, principal, or supervisor, but it will represent the combined efforts of the local superintendent, principals, supervisors, and teachers who are specialists in their particular fields. The advice of educational experts will also be sought, such experts as are experienced in curriculum making, capable of interpreting the real values and purposes of

life—men and women who have breadth of view and a knowledge of many fields of human activity. The children, too, through the working out of their projects, will contribute to the rounding out and building up of curriculum. The course of study must be so planned as to be easily revised, since the material is constantly changing. So far as the experiences of the past are concerned, the course of study is fixed, yet it is ever changing with the experiences, interests, and activities of each community. The curriculum must be made very flexible. It will suggest much in the way of experiences, and also actual projects which have been worked out by children and which have been found to contain such experiences as are likely to be of value to the average child. The course of study will be sufficiently flexible to permit teachers to adjust it to their various schools and the needs of individual pupils. Projects will differ with the community, depending upon its interests, purposes, occupations, and organization. The purpose of the school should be stated in the course of study. It should include a perspective view of the whole range of activities, and materials for study which will utilize and enlarge the experiences of the pupils in the working out of worthwhile projects, such as will lead to “wholehearted purposeful activity.”

The curriculum has been filled with the dead material of the past or with such subject matter as would never come within the actual life experiences of the child. First of all, much of this will need to be forever removed and some new material will have to be added, subject matter which is more closely related to the child's interests.

The course of study will become a thing of life, which makes for “initiatives,” activity, and growth on the part of both teachers and pupils. There will be much

overlapping as far as subjects are concerned. Correlation will be natural, not forced, and much closer than it has been in the past. There will be a constant reaching out into other fields in order to get the material necessary to work out projects along the various lines. The course of study will contain those experiences that have value, such as pupils are likely to engage in not only in school but in life as well. It should meet present needs and should also provide the means for the carrying on of the various activities. Attention should be paid to the sequence of the experiences, which should be suited to the development of the child. The course of study should contain the common activities of everyday life, which are of value in the development of the child, and such parts of the race experience as he may need to help him to live most efficiently.

The experiences which make the most desirable changes in conduct are the ones that should be chosen for the curriculum. Health, practical efficiency, citizenship, ethical and moral standards, and the right use of leisure must all be provided for. In the past, little attention has been paid to the psychological development of the child; the project method will adapt the activities of the school to his interests and capacities. The child should not be encouraged to engage in a project which overtaxes his capacity and destroys his interest. Projects for small children especially should not cover too long a period of time. Every project should begin with the immediate interests and experiences of the child. It may be so guided as to gradually widen and extend the child's world, constantly providing for greater growth.

With wise guidance on the part of the teacher, habit formation and the acquiring of skill may be provided for in the working out of the projects as a need for their use arises. In time, the tools of educa-

tion—reading, writing, spelling, etc.—must become almost automatic. This is necessary in order that the pupil may be able to extend his knowledge. Dr. Bonser says that the value of an experience may be tested by the extent to which it provides for the getting of knowledge or information, the cultivating of habits or attitudes, and by the degree to which it awakens or cultivates any appreciation or improves one's ways of acting, thinking, or feeling. "The curriculum should provide for all phases of behavior, acting, thinking, and feeling. It should reflect all of the aims of life and education."

The course of study should contain such material as will stimulate teachers to study and to develop high ideals and purposes in all of their school work. It should provide helps for the inexperienced teacher, contain annotated references, illustrative and demonstration material, standards of attainment, suggestions as to method and time, and provision for the measuring of instruction.

The new textbooks will eliminate much unnecessary material and add such material as will be of use to the child and the teacher. It will be material which has relation to the life of the child, real situations. The order of arrangement will be less logical and more psychological. There will be much suggestive material, many suggestive projects. Projects which children have actually worked out, and which have been found worth while in their development, will in time probably be collected and put into book form. There will need to be helpful manuals for the teacher. Readers for children will contain interesting stories instead of disconnected sentences, and arithmetics will present such problems as might come up in everyday life. Spelling books will contain words which children most frequently use. There will be great changes in geog-

raphy, history, and all other school subjects.

Introducing the project method into the schools will mean changes in administration, supervision, and the training of teachers. The teacher will need to be taught in the manner in which she is expected to teach; she will need a broad general education in addition to training for her specialty. She must be democratic, must have large social contacts and an interest in, a sympathy for, and an understanding of people.

Introducing the project method will mean an entire change in methods of teaching. The teacher will be less in evidence; her function will be to advise and wisely guide the pupils in their various activities in order that their experiences may be of maximum value in their development. She will help the child in the best way to get out of the experiences of the race the things which are of greatest value to him. The work will be coöperative, a sharing, teacher and pupil working together. The emphasis will no longer be put upon subject matter and the acquiring of a certain amount of knowledge in a definite length of time and in a certain way. Such knowledge is seldom usable in ordinary life experiences and is acquired in surroundings that are entirely different from the life in which the child is engaged when he is out of school. The formal recitation will be done away with and the work will be centered around projects in which the child is vitally interested.

The project method will provide for the working out of projects in social surroundings as near like those out of school as possible. The teacher will be concerned with helping boys and girls to grow through their experiences, to develop through natural tendencies. Education will try to direct these tendencies into useful channels, modify and redirect undesir-

able ones or substitute those which are more desirable. Individual differences will be taken into account and the child taught to form desirable and necessary habits. Training for a vocation should be a part of the education of the individual. In the working out of projects the child may show ability along some specific line. This may be the means of guiding him into the work for which he is best fitted. In order to do this, the child should be taught to have a real purpose in his work, to make plans and be taught to carry them out, and to form his own judgments. He should also be given every opportunity to develop through purposeful activity in a social environment and a chance to work out in a scientific method projects in which he is interested. In doing this, he is getting a background of knowledge and a control of knowledge. There will be no need of artificial motivation for the child's interests will furnish the necessary drive. All school work will be in terms of the present. It will not be a constant preparation for the future but rather participation in present life, growing in the present which will furnish incentive for growth in the future.

The recitation period will be for the discussion of problems which are vital in the lives of children and of value in control of conduct, in cultivating attitudes and appreciations which will help them to become citizens of a democracy, capable of solving the problems of social life. In these discussions, the teacher will wisely guide but always invite initiative on the part of the child. In the working out of projects, pupils will be encouraged to secure additional material. A variety of viewpoints will be brought out in their discussions, even though they may have consulted the same sources. Efforts should be made to eliminate as far as possible from the discussion such material as is not of value in

solving the problem. Children must be taught to be openminded, to be willing to be convinced when there is evidence to the contrary. The school should encourage boys and girls to do independent thinking, to develop an inquiring, critical attitude of mind, an unwillingness to accept in discussion inaccurate and non-pertinent material. Young people should be given responsibility in order that they may be willing and capable of meeting the problems of life, able to do their own thinking, to reason, to collect, organize and focus thought, to form the habit of thinking out a situation carefully and drawing conclusions only after careful investigation.

During the laboratory period, children will work out their projects in their own way and will undertake worthwhile experiments. Each child will be made to feel that he has a certain amount of responsibility in the working out of the project. This kind of school work provides for group interest, coöperation, and the seeking of social rather than selfish personal ends. It develops personality, gives respect for personality, develops ideals of service. It helps the child to be self-directed, to learn the meaning of duty, and interests him in doing his share of the world's work.

The school must strive to cultivate in the child the power of imagination in order that he may get the greatest enjoyment out of life. It must develop the creative instinct, provide means of recreation, help him to deal successfully with new situations, make him strive to be better and more efficient and to cultivate attitudes and appreciations. These are the things which make for efficiency and help to a higher plane of living.

The introduction of the project method will also mean changes in classroom management. Children will no longer be re-

quired to sit quietly in one position. There will be opportunity for moving around, for doing. Children will be busy with their projects, helping each other, working together. Many activities will be going on at once. The school work will be done as in the home or in the shop. There will be greater activity on the part of the children, and the activity of the teacher will be of a different kind. The teacher will no longer hear lessons; the recitation period will be devoted to discussion or to the making of plans for the carrying on of the projects. There will be no set rules for order or behavior.

In summing up the work of reorganizing the schools on the project basis, the course of study, method of teaching, textbooks, classroom management, equipment, administration, supervision, and present aims of the school are all difficulties which will need to be taken into consideration. These must be kept well in mind, first, because different traditions have prevailed; the people are not ready for the change and need educating up to new ways of thinking and doing things. Second, teachers are not trained; they do not have sufficient technical skill or general scholarship.

The project method when well worked out will completely reorganize the whole system of education. The school will be made a great tool of society, through which grown people and children will be able to get assistance in the carrying out of their purposes. It will also give inspiration and serve society more effectively than it has been able to do in the past. Society will have an increased respect for the work of the school and will be glad to coöperate with it. There will be opportunity for the school to lead as well as to follow, to have a part in the life of the community and to prepare for more intelligent participation in the future.

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COMPARISON OF THE GROUP AND INDIVIDUAL METHODS OF TEACHING SPELLING

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How best to teach spelling is a question about which teachers disagree. Most of the late authors favor the individual method in theory, yet the group or class method is still the practice of the majority of teachers. During the school year 1924-25, a program for improving the teaching of spelling in the Chicago schools included an experiment with these two methods.

First, a test in spelling was given to all pupils in the Chicago schools in grades 2 to 8. Following this test, suggestions were made describing two methods (group and individual) of teaching spelling, and teachers were invited to experiment with these methods. It is the purpose of this report to give some of the results of these experiments which were supervised. The methods are described as follows:

GROUP METHOD: TEACHING—TESTING

This plan involves the teaching of the words in the spelling lesson, followed by a test of the pupils' ability to spell. The test should be repeated at a later date to insure permanent retention. Suppose there are twenty words to be taught during the week. These may be divided into four lessons of five words each, which leaves Friday for a test on the words of the present and previous weeks.

1. Write the word on the board.
2. Pronounce it slowly and distinctly, being sure to sound each syllable correctly.
3. Explain the meaning of the word.
4. Use it in a sentence, or ask several pupils to give sentences containing the word.
5. Spell it orally and note the division into syllables.

6. Spell it orally with pupils in concert.
7. Call attention to difficult parts.
8. Erase the word and have pupils write it on paper.
9. Spell the word orally as the pupils check their written word.
10. Do the same for the other four words.
11. Give a test and have pupils exchange papers and mark errors. The test should be written in ink and marked with pencil to avoid any possibility of alteration. Have each pupil write his name on the bottom of the paper he marks. This will help to locate pupils who make errors in marking.
12. Have each pupil keep a personal list of words missed.
13. If a word gives general difficulty, repeat 1-9.
14. Direct pupils in the study of words misspelled, as outlined in the discussion of the individual method.
15. On Friday give a test on all twenty words which have been taught during that week and the twenty words for the previous week.

It will be noted that this plan is essentially a plan of group instruction. One objection is that it often requires pupils to study words they already know how to spell. Almost always there will be words in the lesson which many, or sometimes all, pupils can spell without study. Time spent on these words is wasted.

On the other hand, it has the advantage that pupils learn the correct spelling before attempting to write the word, and often the initial error is avoided.

INDIVIDUAL METHOD: TESTING—TEACHING— TESTING

This plan involves testing the pupils on a list of words, teaching only those that are missed, and re-testing. As different pupils miss different words, the teaching must be largely individual.

1. On Friday, test the pupils with the twenty words for the following week.
2. Have each pupil check in his book or word list the words missed, or make a list of the words missed in a spelling notebook, being sure that he has the correct spelling.
3. If a pupil has a perfect paper, check it over to make sure no mistake has been made. If no word is missed the pupil should be excused from study but not from the test at the end of the week.
4. Monday to Thursday each pupil will study his individual list until he is sure he can spell every word.
5. The teacher will pass about the room during the spelling study period, giving individual help where it is needed.
6. The pupils should be taught the proper method of study, as follows:
 - a. Pronounce the word in a whisper. Be sure that each syllable is sounded.
 - b. Learn the meaning of the word and use it in a sentence.
 - c. Cover the word and pronounce it, trying to see each syllable. Spell the word in a whisper.
 - d. Look at the word and be sure that you spelled it correctly.
 - e. Cover the word and write it on a piece of paper.
 - f. Compare your writing with the word in your book. Be sure you have written it correctly.
 - g. Repeat a-f until you are sure you can spell the word correctly.
7. On Friday a test should be given on the entire twenty words for that week, the twenty for the previous week, and the twenty for the next week.
8. Each pupil's task for the next week is to learn the words which he misspelled in this test.
9. Each pupil should also keep an individual list of words missed in his written work in other subjects.

One objection to this plan is that it may cause an initial error, when a little teaching before testing would avoid such an

error. If a word has been misspelled it is more difficult to teach the correct spelling than if it had not been attempted at all. The connections formed by the error have to be broken up and new connections formed. When possible, it is better to form new connections and to allow the old ones to disappear through disuse.

The advantage of this plan is that the pupils are studying the words they do not know how to spell and are not wasting time on something they already know. It takes care of individual differences by permitting the pupil to finish the spelling and spend his time on other subjects.

In the experiment, pairs of classes of the same grade were compared. Each pair of classes was taught 100 words, one class being taught by the group method and the other by the individual method. Where it was possible to do so, one teacher taught both classes. However, in several cases this arrangement was impracticable. The words selected were always those belonging to the school grade in which the pupils were classified. The 100 words were first given to both classes as a test. During the following five weeks 20 words each week were taught. Fifteen minutes each day were utilized for testing, teaching, or study. At the end of the experiment the entire list was used as a final test. A record was made showing the initial score (number of words spelled correctly) and the final score of each pupil. For the classes using the individual method the number of pupils excused each week from the study of spelling was recorded.

Each pupil under group instruction was matched by a pupil in the same grade and with the same initial score under individual instruction. Those who could not be matched were thrown out of the final tabulation. For each pupil, the improvement was calculated by subtracting the initial score from the final score. This gave the

number of words he had learned to spell during the experiment.

In order to condense the data, the pupils were grouped on the basis of the initial score, and the average improvement of each group was calculated. Those making an initial score of 90 or above were considered as one group. Those making an initial score of 80 to 89 were considered as another group, and so on. Comparison of improvement under the two methods was made by school grades and by groups.

Table I shows the number of pairs of pupils and the average difference in improvement during the five weeks of teaching. There were, in all, 488 pairs of pupils or a total of 976 pupils. When all grades are combined there is a slight difference (.7 words) in favor of the individual method. In the fourth, sixth, and eighth grades the individual method is noticeably superior. In the second grade the group method is noticeably superior.

The initial score of pupils ranged all the way from below 30 to 100. (Those making a score of 100 were not included because no improvement was possible.) In

TABLE I—COMPARISON OF IMPROVEMENT IN SPELLING ABILITY UNDER GROUP AND INDIVIDUAL INSTRUCTION
(Pupils Paired on the Basis of Equal Initial Scores.)

Grade	No. Pairs of Pupils	Average Improvement		Difference in Favor of Individual Method
		Group	Individual	
2	24	32.0	27.7	-4.3
3	19	15.7	14.9	-0.8
4	78	12.1	13.7	1.6
5	97	19.8	20.1	0.3
6	107	18.7	20.5	1.8
7	74	18.7	18.6	-0.1
8	89	18.2	19.5	1.3
Total..	488	18.3	19.0	0.7

TABLE II—COMPARISON OF IMPROVEMENT IN SPELLING ABILITY UNDER GROUP AND INDIVIDUAL INSTRUCTION

Initial Score	No. Pairs of Pupils	Average Improvement		Difference in Favor of Individual Method	
		Group	Individual	Grades 2-8	Grades 4-8
90 up	137	6.0	6.4	0.4	0.4
80-89	163	12.9	13.3	0.4	0.6
70-79	73	22.0	22.5	0.5	0.7
60-69	50	29.1	30.1	1.0	1.2
50-59	27	37.0	41.0	4.0	4.3
40-49	22	48.0	49.7	1.7	3.3
30-39	14	52.8	56.4	3.6	3.4
Below 30	2	72.0	40.0	-32.0	
Total..	488	18.3	19.0	0.7	1.0

TABLE III—AVERAGE DIFFERENCE IN IMPROVEMENT IN SPELLING ABILITY UNDER GROUP AND INDIVIDUAL INSTRUCTION
(Both Groups Taught by One Teacher.)

Grade	No. Pairs of Pupils	Average Difference in Favor of Individual Method
2.....	17	-0.5
3.....	7	-0.9
4.....	46	-0.4
5.....	57	-0.3
6.....	81	2.0
7.....	43	0.8
8.....	51	0.3
Total.....	302	0.5

order to determine the relative value of the two methods for pupils who are poor or good spellers to begin with, the improvement of groups as arranged on the basis of initial score is compared in Table II. The figures in columns 2 to 5 represent all pupils in grades 2 to 8. The figures in column 6 represent pupils of grades 4 to 8. It will be noted that the individual

method is superior in all groups except those whose initial score was below 30. In this case there were only two pairs of pupils. The greatest differences in favor of the individual method are shown with pupils making an initial score between 50 and 59. The small differences in the upper part of the table are due to the fact that there was not as much opportunity for improvement. On the whole, the improvement under individual instruction in grades 2 to 8 is about 3½% greater than the improvement under group instruction. If the second and third grades are eliminated the percentage of improvement in favor of individual instruction is about 5½% for grades 4 to 8.

When the two methods are taught by different teachers, the difference in improvement may be due, in part, to the difference in the ability of the teachers. In order to eliminate this factor, a study was made including only cases where one teacher taught both methods to two classes. These results are presented in Table III. It will be noted that in grades 2 to 5 the group method seems to be slightly superior and in grades 6 to 8 the individual method seems to be slightly superior. When all grades are combined, the individual method is still slightly superior.

Teachers using the individual method were requested to report for each week of the experiment the number of pupils who made a perfect score in the test and who were excused from the study of spelling. This report was not made by all teachers. However, a representative number did give this information. The range is from an average of one pupil to eleven pupils excused each week. The average number excused was 5.8. If the average class membership is 48, this represents 12% of the class. Under individual instruction it seems that we secure 3½% better results with a saving of 12% of the pupils' time.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

1. When all grades are combined, individual instruction is slightly superior to group instruction. This is true even though teachers were more skilled in using the group method.

2. The present experiment seems to indicate that the group method secures better results than the individual method in grades 2 and 3. This may be due to the fact that pupils in the lower grades do not know how to study independently and during this short experiment did not have opportunity to acquire a good technique of study.

3. When the pupils are grouped on the basis of their initial spelling ability, the individual method secures better results in all groups except those scoring below 30. The pupils making these low scores were in the second grade. The fact that so large a number of pupils scored 80 or 90 indicates that group study would involve a large waste of time. If a pupil can spell 80 words out of a given list of 100 words it seems folly to have him spend time on the entire 100.

4. When comparison is made using only classes where one teacher taught the two methods, the individual method still seems slightly superior.

5. The testimony of the majority of

teachers at the end of the experiment was very markedly in favor of the individual method. Even though many of them had not had previous experience with it, they favored it because of the greater interest on the part of the pupils, economy of pupils' time, and opportunity of giving help where it was needed.

6. On the average about 12% of the pupils were excused from the study of spelling because their initial score on the week's work was perfect. They were thus enabled to spend their time on something which would be of more value to them.

7. On the basis of a slightly greater improvement and the great economy of the pupils' time under the individual method, it seems to be advisable to make use of individual instruction, particularly in grades 4 to 8.

8. Further experimentation should be conducted to determine the best procedure to follow in each of the school grades. Perhaps a combination of the group and individual methods could be used to advantage in the lower grades. Under individual instruction it is possible that a short period of preliminary study before the initial test would be valuable. At least there is need for devising some effective scheme for helping pupils to acquire a proper technique of study.

THE CLEARING HOUSE

A FIFTH GRADE GEOGRAPHY PROJECT

I. Situation:

North America with its resources and industries is included in the geography course of study outline. The teacher wished to introduce the industry of manufacturing in the most interesting way so that the pupils' knowledge of it would be live and up to date.

II. Motivation:

Previous to the study of manufacturing, the class had taken up the oil industry. As a result the pupils realized the fact that the automobile is largely responsible for the greater demand for oil and consequently the incentive for further development of oil wells. This led to a discussion of the makes of automobiles that lead in production and naturally the Ford car received the major attention. The active minds of a few pupils brought out this suggestion, "Why not study about the manufacturing of the Ford car, and through the knowledge of one definite manufacturing plant gain a knowledge of manufacturing in general?"

III. Pupils' aim:

The pupils know that the Ford car is the most inexpensive car made, both as to initial buying price and cost of upkeep. Their problem now is to find out how the Ford Motor Company has developed the high type of efficiency in manufacturing.

IV. Formulation of plan:

- A. Letters were written to the Ford Motor Company for information.
- B. Some of the pupils visited the Ford Motor Plant in St. Paul, bringing to the class interesting information.
- C. The newspapers were studied for facts on the development and expansion of the industry.
- D. Pictures of the progress in types of cars were brought to class.

V. Methods of procedure:

- A. Everyone has admiration for a manufacturing plant that can produce the best for the money. The Ford Motor Company is a good example, and the pupils developed a lively interest in learning how it was done. Thus the following project was developed:

The Ford industry is a masterpiece of efficiency. What is the keynote of its success?

1. History
 - a. Life of Mr. Ford
 - b. Beginning of industry
2. Development
 - a. Manufacturing methods
 - (1) Control of primary necessities
 - (a) Raw material
 - (b) Power
 - (c) Transportation
 - b. Branch factories
 - c. Close supervision
 - d. Waste elimination
 - e. Research and growth
3. Results
 - a. Perfecting a record production cycle

- b. Daily output and marketing
- c. Foreign expansion
- 4. Social factors
 - a. Organization — "Ford Idea" of industrial relation to
 - (1) Employee
 - (2) Consuming public
- 5. Value of the study of a type of industry as applied to the needs of a pupil
 - a. Factual
 - b. Civic—adoption of "Ford methods" of procedure in developing any civic problem
 - (1) Definite aim
 - (2) Courage and faith in enterprise
 - (3) Logical reasoning and organization
 - (4) Concentration and persistency
 - (5) Community coöperation
 - (6) Alertness in thrift
 - (7) Research and growth

VI. Minimum requirements:

- A. Knowledge of conditions conducive to successful manufacturing
 - 1. Favorable climate
 - 2. Suitable location
 - 3. Securing of raw material
 - 4. Development of power
 - 5. Adjustment of labor problems
 - 6. Increasing demand through superior output in quality and price

VII. Culmination of project:

Through the study of the efficient methods of procedure employed by one successful type of

industry, we made a list of these methods and applied them as guides in all of our school work. The pupils' aim was, "To become happy, healthy, useful citizens." Each step was discussed and we decided how it could be used in the pupils' daily curriculum. This caused real interest and each child learned how to check up the reason for his success or failure through one of these civic rules.

I believe the most apparent result of this project was a noticeable growth in self-control which reflected itself on the playground as well as in the schoolroom. The thrift element predominant in the Ford industry developed a concentrated thrift habit both in energy and in material. The constant research element in this typical industry showed the pupils the value of a library, newspapers, or magazines toward giving definite knowledge.

VIII. Correlation with other subjects:

The Social Sciences, as taught in the Minneapolis schools, include: Geography, History, Civics, Nature Study, and quite often Language and Reading. The specific relation to other subjects besides Geography is as follows:

A. History

- 1. Life of Mr. Ford
- 2. Inventors and inventions that have helped toward progress in machinery.
- 3. Enterprises promoting progress in transportation.

B. Civics

The rules developed from the

- methods used in manufacturing
were applied to community life.
- C. Nature Study
1. Natural environments
 - a. Mineral deposits
 - (1) Iron
 - (2) Coal
 - (3) Sand
 - (4) Oil

- b. Forest supply
 - (1) Lumber
 - (2) Rubber trees
 - c. Rivers
 - d. Soil-manufacture of a fertilizer.
- MRS. H. J. L'HEUREUX,
Minneapolis, Minn.

AS REPORTED

THE N. E. A. AT PHILADELPHIA

The annual meeting of the National Education Association must now compete with scores of summer schools for the attendance of teachers and school officers. Under the circumstances the hold that the association has upon the rank and file of the educational forces is remarkable.

The Philadelphia session was large and enthusiastic. The program, under the leadership of the president, Miss Mary McSkimmon, was excellent, and the Exposition had not reached such proportions as to cut in seriously on the interests of the delegates. Among the high points of the convention were the address before the National Council, by Dorothy Canfield Fisher, the Sunday evening vesper service, at which William Mather Lewis discussed the youth problem, and Miss McSkimmon's presidential address on "The Challenge of Childhood."

This was the theme of the whole convention and by means of it Miss McSkimmon succeeded in embodying the essential factor in education in contrast to more mechanical matters that have at times monopolized attention. The Department of Classroom Teachers presented a series of programs built around this theme and

the general sessions held at the same time as the meeting of the Delegate Assembly served to emphasize it further.

The Delegate Assembly has now thoroughly established itself as a deliberative body and did business with neatness and dispatch. Numerous reports of standing committees were presented in printed form, discussed, and acted upon. Superintendent Hunter's report on tenure might be cited as an example of how skilfully the work of the Association is now done. After making a brief but clear summary of the findings of his committee, he called for contributions from other members and was rewarded by hearing spirited comments from a dozen or more. The report left no doubt as to the advantages of tenure but could offer little encouragement as to the actual conditions.

The Department of Elementary School Principals conducted a series of program meetings, breakfasts, and dinners as usual. Most of one session was given over to the Committee on Standards and Qualifications, and this committee worked arduously at the task of laying the foundations for its report. Through the coöperation of Dr. John K. Norton, Director of the Bureau of Research of the N. E. A., data will be gathered by a special investigator in the

field and a complete analysis of the job effected. The new officers of this department are: President, Miss Ruth Pyrtle, Lincoln, Nebr.; Secretary, Mr. Warren E. Roe, Newark, N. J.

The Department of Classroom Teachers chose for president, Miss Anna Thompson, teacher of social science in Northeast High School in Kansas City, Mo., and for secretary, Miss Clara Lynn, of Seattle, Wash. The retiring president, Miss Mary Sullivan, of Castleton, Vt., became vice-president in accordance with the constitution.

The new President of the National Education Association itself is Francis G. Blair, superintendent of public instruction in Illinois.

The resolutions passed by the Association were as follows:

EDUCATION BILL

The welfare of the children now enrolled in the schools of the United States is dependent upon our ability to make available to boards of education, to superintendents of schools and to teachers throughout the nation the results of current practice, of experiments wherever they are conducted, and of the results of scientific investigation. The federal government has long recognized its obligation in the field of scientific inquiry and has promoted the welfare of all the people through the activities of the Departments of Agriculture, Commerce and Labor. We hold that economy and efficiency demand that the activities of the federal government dealing with education be consolidated in a Department of Education under the President's cabinet. We urge that adequate support be provided for this department in order that it may conduct such inquiries and disseminate such information as will make for the highest degree of efficiency in all of our schools. We know that this service can be rendered without in any way interfering with the constitutional right of the several states to control, administer and supervise their own schools. We, therefore, urge the Congress to pass the Curtis-Reed Bill, which embodies the

program which this association has consistently advocated throughout its history.

CHILD LABOR

The National Education Association, in reaffirming its stand on child labor, urges the passage of such legislation as will make exploitation impossible and will assure protection to the children of America.

TEACHING RESPECT FOR LAW

We believe that the permanent prosperity and happiness of a democratic people are dependent in large degree upon development of a high type of character among all the youth of the land. We hold that one of the chief purposes of the schools is to develop such a standard of character. We deplore the prevalent tide of crime, lawlessness, disregard and disrespect of law, and failure to enforce law as debauching America's youth and undermining the foundation of the republic. We call upon teachers everywhere to teach and practice respect for all law, as a chief purpose of education. We call upon the citizenship of the nation to exercise at all times its full right of franchise. We call upon parents to assume their full measure of responsibility for rearing and training of children into the practices and duties of citizenship.

ILLITERACY

We reaffirm our endorsement of the movement to wipe out illiteracy by 1930 and urge the allied educational forces of the National Education Association to join with this effort for the early liberation of millions of our countrymen from the bondage of ignorance.

LITERACY TESTS

We believe that the reading and writing of English understandingly should be made a qualification for admission to citizenship of the foreign-born and also a qualification for voting.

OBSCENE LITERATURE, PICTURES AND TOKENS

The Congress of the United States has denied the privilege of the mails to obscene and indecent literature, pictures, and tokens, yet such

articles reach the youth of our land through various other means of transportation. This association again recommends that its legislative committee memorialize the Congress of the United States to enact legislation prohibiting the transportation in interstate commerce of all such literature, pictures, and tokens as are now denied the privilege of the United States mails.

THE STATUS OF THE TEACHER

We note with pleasure the great improvement in facilities for teacher training, the increase in professional requirements demanded by standardizing the state agencies, the longer school tenure, and the many successful pension and retirement laws. These all help to raise teaching to the dignity of a real profession. They also tend to bring into the teaching group the most promising young men and women. We urge teachers everywhere to respond to these improved conditions in a whole-hearted way. Good as the conditions are, they may be still further improved. Our task is to continue to grow and to show intelligent enthusiasm for our work. The association recommends that administrative authorities protect teachers in their work in the classroom from attempts by outside agencies to use the school organization for the furtherance of ends not directly connected with the aims of public education.

We believe that the policy of allowing sabbatical leave for study, recreation, and recuperation should be encouraged in the various states and locations. The efficiency of our schools depends upon the health and intellectual vigor of teachers, and the public can make no better investment than to adopt those measures which will insure the maximum fitness of all members of the profession.

FINANCIAL AID

The National Education Association reaffirms its approval of the plan which will give adequate financial support to all classes of public schools. If the children of the republic are successfully to meet the ever-increasing demands of civilization, the nation, the state, or the community must supply the funds. It is

the responsibility of each state to enact such legislation as will provide adequate public funds and insure an administration sufficiently effective to guarantee equality of educational opportunity to all its children.

ATHLETIC SPORTS

We affirm our faith in the value of competitive athletic sports. We believe that all students from the elementary grades through their last year in college should have the benefit of organized recreation. We believe that the school and college authorities should exercise full and entire control of all sports and that expenditures therefor should not be out of proportion to the cost of regular academic instruction. We urge that all high-school and college athletic regulations be strictly adhered to. We believe that greater public recognition should be given distinguished achievement in scholarship so as to avoid the appearance of giving athletics first place in school life.

INTERNATIONAL PEACE AND GOODWILL

We believe that international peace rests upon international goodwill, which can only exist when there is international understanding. We recommend the World Federation of Education Associations as a potent means to help world-wide understanding. We also commend the international interchange of professors, teachers, and students. Growth of this custom will in time help to promote goodwill among all the countries making the exchanges. Each individual who has this experience in another country will return to his native land with friendships made and understandings secure. These will arm him effectively against idle and poisonous propaganda.

SCHOOL LANDS

The settled policy of the federal government to foster education by granting to the several states large tracts of land to be used in support of their common and public schools is a wise and beneficent one. However, certain practices and rulings in recent years have so clouded and impaired the states' title to such land that

it is impossible to realize the purposes intended. Therefore, we favor such legislation by the Congress of the United States as will clear the title to the lands granted to the states for the benefit of their common and public schools and will make it possible for the states to enjoy the benefits and to realize the purposes intended for the promotion of education and for the safety of the republic.

POSTAGE RATES FOR BOOKS

We hold that books are one of the most important influences in maintaining the morale of the American home, and their general circulation is greatly to be desired. We deplore the discrimination against books in the present postal law, and urge the desirability of recommending to Congress that books be admitted to the same privileges in the mails that are granted to periodicals and magazines.

APPRECIATION OF HOSPITALITY

We express our sincere appreciation of the many courtesies and generous hospitality extended to the members of the association by the staff of the schools, civic organizations, public officials, and by private citizens of Philadelphia. We appreciate the service rendered to teachers and to the cause of education by the reports of our deliberation published by the local press and by leading newspapers throughout the nation. We have been able to do our work and to enjoy our sojourn in the city that gave birth to our association because of the careful foresight and untiring effort of scores of workers who have contributed so generously to the success of our annual convention.

NEWER TENDENCIES IN EDUCATION

The Bulletin of the National Child Labor Association in a recent issue reports the substance of a striking address by President Glenn Frank, of the University of Wisconsin, and proceeds to expound the newer education as follows:

Mr. Glenn Frank sums up very well in a recent article in *The Nation*, "The Revolt Against Education," the principles involved in

the new system of teaching. He is illustrating the difference between what he calls "education through subjects" and "education through situations."

"If we were to undertake to teach baseball, let us say, to a seven-year-old boy by the 'subject' method, this is the way we would go about it. We would ask him to memorize the biographies of the great players of baseball, past and present. Then we would ask him to pass an examination on the lives of Christy Mathewson, Ty Cobb, Hans Wagner, Babe Ruth, and others. We would then ask him to make a study of the various kinds of wood out of which bats are made, the countries from which the woods came, and so on—again subjecting him to an examination. We would then ask him to make a study of the principle of the gyroscope involved in throwing a curve, the law of falling bodies involved in throwing a drop, and so on—again putting him to the test of an examination. All this on the theory, apparently, that when he had mastered the details he would suddenly be consumed by a passionate interest in the game. But by watching one boy for one month, it becomes clear that the way to awaken his interest in baseball is to take him to a Big League game, get him a good seat in the grandstand, allow him to feel the thrill of the game, and to yell himself hoarse for a hero. After that, he will sit up all night sleuthing and snaring explanations of details."

What are the fields of experience which offer themselves to the educator? What are the "situations" which he finds at hand? He finds them in the child's everyday life—his relations with his fellows, his school, and his community. The school itself offers a fertile field—the school building and equipment, playground, bulletin, lighting and heating plants, gardens, grounds, system of government, health and social conditions, as water and milk supply, etc. These things today are serving as schools, not merely as side issues to rouse interest or serve as recreation; they are serious classrooms where work is carried on—quite as hard and important work as that carried on in a classroom among books. The theoretical or book knowledge is absorbed—not to serve as "polish,"

or "polite learning," but directly in relation to these experiences.

Space forbids more than the briefest possible account of the way in which the new system is working. The child is given an actual part in running these activities connected with school and community—he assumes responsibility for them. For example, pupils in the new schools assist in running the lighting and heating plant, they run the store where supplies are bought, they cultivate the garden, carry on the school bookkeeping, and publish the bulletin. Chemistry classes analyze the community water and milk supplies, and agitate or get their parents to agitate for needed improvements. Carpentry classes construct school equipment and, in rare instances, rural children have actually built the entire school building. These activities in themselves constitute an extremely effective teaching method. Consider the training which these children receive, the English, mathematics, chemistry, etc., which they must absorb. Nor do they absorb these things in a meaningless formal way—they are learned exactly as things are learned in real life, namely, as part of actual experience. Education of this type resembles food; it is absorbed into the system, nourishing the individual and becoming a part of him.

Other more general tendencies are showing themselves in our progressive schools. One of these is the tendency to break up the rigidity of the divisions into class groups. Age, as a basis for class division, is held to be arbitrary, and furthermore the feeling is growing that these divisions really exist for that hypothetical person—the average. It is felt that the child acquires independence by being allowed all latitude possible in the conduct of his work. Some schools go so far as to leave the entire choice of the work from day to day with the child, requiring only a certain definite amount to be covered within a longer period of time. Thus the child, by learning to budget his time and

plan his work, acquires control and self-reliance. Another means of cultivating independence in children is the practice of encouraging them to assist each other in their school work. One of the most interesting of the more general educational tendencies is that of linking the school subjects up with each other. The various studies—English, history, mathematics, etc., instead of being held in water-tight compartments are viewed as the various sections of one large pattern.

Externally the changes in these schools are keeping pace with the changes going on within. Stiff desks and rigid positions held by children for hours at a time are being abandoned as harmful repression which results in boisterous activity the moment the strain is released.

All of these tendencies in education have yet to prove themselves. Furthermore, a definite set of values will have to be developed before they can prove themselves. According to the new theory we cease to ask of a school, "How many facts do you teach your pupil?" but "How much more of a person do you make out of them?" For our own part, so long as this new education is on trial we are inclined to believe it is right to apply the standard of an old system. According to the standards now in force, the new school must measure up. Its graduates must be able to compete with their fellows from the old school on their own ground. We are glad to report that, judged by this standard, the new schools are, in many instances, comparing very favorably with the old. Furthermore, some of them have shown remarkable holding power on their pupils. We believe that this holding power will increase as schools become more closely linked up with life. We believe that the more obvious are the benefits of schooling, the less willing the children will be to enter a poorly paid job which leads nowhere at the end of the 14th year, and the less willing will their parents be to have them.

THE READER'S GUIDE

RESULTS AT WINNETKA

By means of a subvention from the Commonwealth Fund, Mr. Washburne and his associates at Winnetka have been enabled to take stock.¹ They set ten problems for themselves, all related directly to the evaluation of the "Winnetka technique" of individual instruction. In publishing the answers found, the writers are careful to state that only a fraction of the studies have so far been made that will ultimately be necessary. The report, then, is to be regarded as tentative.

A brief summary of the methods employed at Winnetka sets forth the use of "goals" in individual instruction and distinguishes discussions from recitations. The latter are avoided. There are also brief references to self-government, dramatics, projects, assemblies, hand work, art, music, and physical education. Next, facts as to age-grade distribution, intelligence levels, and scores on tests of achievement are set forth. Finally, such considerations as degree of concentration, teacher's burden, and costs are passed in review.

The conclusions stated are distinctly favorable to the Winnetka Plan. It apportions drill more suitably, eliminates repetition of the work of a grade, leaves more time for free, creative activities, and, as measured by standardized tests, secures better than average results in reading, language, and arithmetic. Graduates of the elementary school do well in high school; the burden placed upon teachers, while greater than in ordinary public schools, is less than in experimental schools

generally. The cost is not greater, but, in view of the results achieved, is actually less.

The tone of the study is excellent. There is abundant evidence that the writers wish to avoid the appearance of making extravagant claims and content themselves with urging the need of wider experimentation to determine the actual value of their methods. The fact that the tests available cover only a fraction of the course of study as a whole is clearly recognized. The study will undoubtedly receive the respectful consideration that it merits.

THE TRINIDAD PLAN

All students of education are familiar with the "Pueblo Plan," by Preston Search. They are now invited to consider its successor as a means of providing for individual differences. This consists essentially in homogeneous grouping on the basis of results obtained on standard tests, checked of course against other data.

Superintendent Corning's account² is the most complete that has so far been given of ability grouping in a school system. After reviewing the history of the testing movement and of various attempts to provide for individuals, the writer explains the "Trinidad Plan," and argues its advantages. He includes a chapter, all too brief, on the changes that were made in the curriculum to adapt it to a multiple-track system. Much to his satisfaction, little or no objection to the plan developed among the patrons.

The account as a whole is very readable. It includes some material already familiar but nevertheless useful in providing a set-

¹ *A Survey of the Winnetka Public Schools.* By Carleton Washburne, Mabel Vogel, and William S. Gray. Bloomington, Ill.: Public School Publishing Co., 1926.

² *After Testing What?* By Hobart M. Corning. Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Co., 1926.

ting for the actual experiment. Apparently very great dependence was placed upon mental tests, more than some will think wise. The educational program lags behind the testing program; organization is easier than adaptation of the curriculum. A further report, after the experiment has had a longer trial, will be very useful in enabling other school systems to decide how far the Trinidad Plan is adapted to their needs.

HOW TO JUDGE A COURSE OF STUDY

The Bureau of Curriculum Research of Teachers College now offers the first fruits of its two years of labor³ in the form of a monograph on the rating of elementary school courses of study. Criteria for the purpose were developed with the aid of a body of students and these were applied to some nine thousand courses in the various school subjects. The names of the courses ranked "very good" or "excellent" in each subject are printed as well as the names of a few of the best general courses.

The effort of the Bureau has been directed so far mainly to determining present practice. Ultimately an attempt will be made to evaluate that practice. Meanwhile the development of tentative criteria and a technique of rating puts us a long way forward on the practical side of course-of-study making.

AN AUSTRALIAN VERSION OF THE BINET-SIMON SCALE

To the Goddard, Terman, Kuhlman, and Herring revisions of the Binet-Simon Scale is now added that by Phillips.⁴ Though the volume containing the scale bears imprint of 1924, the scale seems to be practically unknown in this country.

The reviewer notes at once that the term "ability" appears instead of "intelli-

gence." This will tend to pacify those who resent the deterministic tendency of some current discussions of what children can and can not do. Some 1500 Binet records of Australian children were accumulated as a basis, care being exercised to cover a wide range of social status. Seventy-eight tests were selected and norms determined for ages three to fifteen inclusive.

Specific directions for the application of the tests are given, together with a discussion of the problem of classification. In the main the author follows Terman and he quotes with approval the practice of Oakland, California, in arranging homogeneous groups. Whether the author favors the use of group tests of mental ability is not clear. The scheme he presents is intended for use with individuals.

SIGNIFICANT ARTICLES

CHARACTERISTICS OF SCHOOL LEADERS

By means of a rating scale, devised by Lester R. Marston, for measuring emotional reactions of children, Otis W. Caldwell and Beth Wellman, of the Lincoln School, sought to learn what sort of persons were chosen as leaders in the school. Scholarship and intelligence ranked high. Age was average or less. In certain cases the more socially inclined were selected; in others, such as editing, for example, those more inhibited. The study is reported in *Journal of Educational Research* for June.

THE CHALLENGE OF CHILDHOOD

The president's annual address before the National Education Association this year was a ringing plea for a new consecration to the service of education. As reported

³Rating Elementary School Courses of Study. By Florence B. Stratemeyer and Herbert B. Bruner. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1926.

⁴The Measurement of General Ability. By Gilbert E. Phillips. Sidney, New South Wales: Teachers' College Press, 1924.

in *School and Society* of July 3, Miss McSkimmon began by calling attention to the fact that early students of education in this country were concerned only with adults. She felt that we might now have been farther along on the way to adequate provision for children's needs if we had begun sooner to study them. Prominent among these needs are health, mastery of the tools of learning, training in home membership, ideals of citizenship, and wholesome habits of enjoyment.

THE VANISHING MALE

Mr. George E. Davis, of Cincinnati, ventures to raise once more the vexed question of whether men teachers are necessary and, if so, how they are to be had. He reports in *School Life* for June a study made for the National Committee on Research in Secondary Education, in which he presents at some length arguments to show why, for older pupils at least, men as well as women teachers are required. The evidence offered is almost all opinion of well-known writers. Apparently no other sort of evidence was available.

SCHOOL MUSIC TODAY

Many who have been preoccupied with spelling will be surprised to learn from Peter A. Dykema what strides music education is making. In his address, reproduced in *American Education* for June, he traces the developments of the past eight years. In five respects great advance has been made, namely, measurement of musical talent, revision of high school music, school surveys of music, relating school music to the community, and stressing the spiritual values in music texts. Two other aspects were already being stressed and have also developed. These are training in instrumental music and in listening. The most pressing need now is to deter-

mine what is essential and concentrate upon it.

PARENTHOOD AS A PROFESSION

American Childhood for June contains an address by Mrs. Reeve, president of the National Congress of Parents and Teachers, with the arresting title, "Making Parenthood a Profession." The body of the address does not make very clear just how this is to be done but it leaves the reader in no doubt of the speaker's enthusiasm for whole-hearted coöperation between parents and teachers. That might result in less "operation" for both and hence is certainly to be cultivated.

THE NEW BOOKS

Extra-Curricular Activities. By Elmer Harrison Wilds. New York: Century Co., 1926. Pp. 273.

The Group Method of Measuring Sight Singing. By Raymond M. Mosher. New York: Teachers College Bureau of Publications, 1925. Pp. 75.

The Problems of Childhood. By Angelo Patri. New York: Appleton & Co., 1926. Pp. vii+305.

Training in Citizenship. By Roy Winthrop Hatch. New York: Scribner's Sons, 1926. Pp. ix+338.

The Standard of American Speech. By Fred Newton Scott. New York: Allyn & Bacon, 1926. Pp. 345.

A Study of the Nature of Difficulty. By Jacob S. Orleans. New York: Teachers College Bureau of Publications, 1926. Pp. 39.

Graded Units in Student-Teaching. By Hugh Clark Pryor. New York: Teachers College Bureau of Publications, 1926. Pp. 114.

A Detailed Analysis of Achievement in the High School. By Cecile White Fleming. New York: Teachers College Bureau of Publications, 1926. Pp. 209.

New Horn-Ashbaugh Speller. By Ernest Horn and Ernest J. Ashbaugh. Philadelphia: Lippincott Co., 1926.

Junior-High-School Procedure. By Frank C. Touton and Alice B. Struthers. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1926. Pp. 595.

Research for Teachers. By Burdette R. Buckingham. Newark, N. J.: Silver, Burdett & Co., 1926. Pp. 386. \$2.20.

My Cut-a-Picture Book. By Anna E. Sample. Newark, N. J.: Silver, Burdett & Co., 1926. Pp. 122.

Progressive Trends in Rural Education. By A. D. Mueller. New York: Century Co., 1926. Pp. xxxii + 363. \$2.00.

The Theory of Education. By Ira W. Howerth. New York: Century Co., 1926. Pp. xv + 413. \$2.00.

American Patriotism. Compiled by Merton E. Hill. New York: Allyn & Bacon, 1926. Pp. 241. Illus. \$1.00.

Book of Modern Essays. Compiled and edited by John M. Avent. New York: Allyn & Bacon, 1926. Pp. 244. \$1.20.

Por España. By Gertrude M. Walsh. New York: Allyn & Bacon, 1926. Pp. 202. Illus. \$1.00.

IN PAPER COVERS

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The Ability of the States to Support Education. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, Research Bulletin, Vol. IV., Nos. 1 and 2. Pp. 88.

Bibliography on School Buildings. By John Guy Fowlkes and Amos B. Carlile. Madison, Wis.: University of Wisconsin, Bureau of Educational Research, Bulletin, No. 6. Pp. 76.

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